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Andrews' Series of Latin School Books.

PUBLISHED BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER,

51 WASHINGTON STREET, BOSTON.

THE LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS prepared by Prof. E. A. Andrews, exclusive of his Latin-English Lexicon, founded on the Latin-German Lexicon of Dr. Freund, constitute two distinct series, adapted to different and distinct purposes. The basis of the First Series is Andrews' First Latin Book; of the Second, Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar.

FIRST SERIES.

This Series is designed expressly for those who commence the study of Latin at a very early age, and for such as intend to pursue it to a limited extent only, or merely as subsidiary to the acquisition of a good English education. It consists of the following works, viz.:—

- 1. Andrews' First Latin Book; or Progressive Lessons in Reading and Writing Latin. This small volume contains most of the leading principles and grammatical forms of the Latin language, and, by the logical precision of its rules and definitions, is admirably fitted to serve as an introduction to the study of general grammar. The work is divided into lessons of convenient length, which are so arranged that the student will, in all cases, be prepared to enter upon the study of each successive lesson, by possessing a thorough knowledge of those which preceded it. The lessons generally consist of three parts:—Ist. The statement of important principles in the form of rules or definitions, or the exhibition of orthographical or etymological forms; 2d. Exercises, designed to illustrate such principles or forms; and 3d. Questions, intended to assist the student in preparing his lesson. In addition to the grammatical lessons contained in this volume, a few pages of Reading Lessons are nunexed, and these are followed by a Dictionary comprising all the Latin words contained in the work. This book is adapted to the use of all schools above the grade of primary schools, including also Academies and Female Seminaries. It is prepared in such a manner that it can be used with little difficulty by any intelligent parent or teacher, with no previous knowledge of the language.
- The Latin Reader, with a Dictionary and Notes, containing explanations of difficult idioms, and numerous references to the lessons contained in the First Latin Book.
- 3. The Viri Romæ, with a Dictionary and Notes, referring, like those of the Reader, to the First Latin Book. This series of three small volumes, if faithfully studied according to the directions contained in them, will not only render the student a very tolerable proficient in the principles of the Latin language and in the knowledge of its roots, from which so many words of his English language are derived, but will constitute the best preparation for a thorough study of the English grammar.

SECOND SERIES.

Note.—The "Latin Reader" and the "Viri Romæ," in this series, are the same as in the first series.

This Series is designed more especially for those who are intending to become thoroughly acquainted with the Latin language, and with the principal classical authors of that language. It consists of the following works:—

1. Latin Lessons. This small volume is designed for the younger classes of Latin students, who intend ultimately to take up the larger Grammar, but to whom that work would, at first, appear too formidable, et contains the prominent principles of Latin grammar, expressed in the same language as in the larger Grammar, and likewise Reading and Writing Lessons, with a Diotomary of the Latin words and phrases occurring in the Lessons.

- dto. Latin Grammar. Revised, with Corrections and Adleges. By Professors E. A. Andrews and S. Stondard. Colleges. By Professors E. A. Andrews and S. Stondard. This work, which for many years has been the text-book in the department of Latin Grammar, claims the merit of having first introduced into the schools of this country the subject of grammatical analysis, which now occupie; a conspicuous place in so many grammars of the English language. More than twenty years have chapsed since the first publication of this Grammar, and it is hardly necessary to say that its merits—placing it in a practical view, prefiniently above every other Latin Grammar—have been so fully appreciated that it has been adopted as a Text Book in nearly every College and Seminary in the country. The present edition has not only heen thoroughly revised and corrected (two years of continuous labor having been devoted to its careful revision and to the purpose of readering it conformable in all respects to the advanced position which it aims to recupy,) but it contains at least one third more matter than the previous editions. To unite the acknowledged excellencies of the older English manusla, and of the more recent German grammars, was the special aim of the authors of this work; and to this end particular attention was directed:—1st. To the preparation of more extended rules for the pronunciation of the language; 2d. To a clear exposition of its syntax; and 4th. To greater precision in rules and definitions.
- Questions on the Grammar. This little volume is intended to aid the student in preparing his lessons, and the teacher in conducting his recitations.
- 4. A Synopsis of Latin Grammar, comprising the first paradigms, and the Principal Rules of Latin Etymology and Syntax. The few pages composing this work contain those portions of the Grammar to which the student has occasion to refer most frequently in the preparation of his daily lessons.
- Latin Reader. The Reader, by means of two separate and distinct sets of notes, is equally adapted for use in connection either with the First Latin Book or the Latin Grammar.
- 6. Viri Romæ. This volume, like the Reader, is furnished with notes and references, both to the First Latin Book and to the Latin Grammar. The principal difference in the two sets of notes found in each of these volumes consists in the somewhat greater fulness of those which belong to the smaller series.
- 7. Latin Exercises. This work contains exercises in every department of the Latin Grammar, and is so arranged that it may be studied in connection with the Grammar through every stage of the preparatory course. It is designed to prepare the way for original composition in the Latin language, both in prose and verse.
- 8. A Key to Latin Exercises. This Key, in which all the exercises in the preceding volume are fully corrected, is intended for the use of teachers only.
- 9. Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War, with a Dictionary and Notes. The text of this edition of Cæsar has been formed by reference to the best German editions. The Notes are principally grammatical. The Dictionary, which, like all the others in the series, was prepared with great labor, contains the usual significations of the words, together with an explanation of all such phrases as might otherwise perplex the student.
- 10. Sallust. Sallust's Jugarthine War and Conspiracy of Cataline, with a Dictionary and Notes. The text of this work, which was based upon that of Cortius, has been modified by reference to the best modern diltions, especially by those of Kritz and Geriah; and its orthography is, in

general, conformed to that of Pottier and Planche. The Dictionaries of Cæsar and Sallust connected with this series are original works, and, in connection with the Notes in each volume, furnish a very complete and satisfactory apparatus for the stu ly of these two authors.

- 11. Ovid. Selections from the Metamorphoses and Heroides of Ovid, with Notes, Grammatical References, and Exercises in Scanning. These selections from Ovid are designed as an introduction to Lutin poetry. They are accompanied with numerous brief notes explanatory of difficult phrases, of obscure historical or mythological allusions, and especially of grammatical difficulties. To these are added such Exercises in Scanning as serve fully to introduce the student to a knowledge of Latin prosody, and especially of the structure and laws of hexameter and pentameter verse
- 12. Virgil. The Eclogues and Georgics of Virgil, with Norses and a Metrical Key. The text of this edition is, in general, that of Heyne as rested by Magner. Particular attention has been given to the orthography and paractuation. The orthography has been made to conform to the standard of prevalent of the orthography has been made to conform to the standard of prevalent of the orthography has been made to enform the standard of prevalent or of program and the like, as they tend to the conformation and the like, as they tend examination of the Orthographia Virgillation, at the end of this edition. The notes are very numerous, and in their preparation the editor has drawn freely from the best commentaries on Virgil hoth German and English. Including those of Heyne, Wagner, Ferbiger, Ladewig, Martyn, Keightley, Bryce, Conington and others. The notes contain many references to the Grammar, which will be found useful.

In amouncing the Revised Edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, the Publishers believe it to be quite unnecessary to speak of the merits of the work. The fact that in the space of about Thenty Years, Sixty-Five Editions, numbering above Two Hundred Thousand Copies, have been required for the purpose of meeting the steadily increasing demand for the work, sufficiently evinces the estimation in which it has been held. In preparing this Revised and Enlarged Edition, every portion of the original work has been reconsidered in the light of the experience of twenty years spent by the present editor in studies connected with this department of education, and with the aid of numerons publications in the same department, which, during this period, have issued from the European press. The results of this labor are apparent on almost every page, in new modifications of the old materials, and especially in such additional information in regard to its various topics as the present advanced state of classical education in this country seemed obviously to demand. The publishers commend this new edition to the attention of Teachers throughout the country, and express the hope that in its present form it will be deemed worthy of a continuance of the flavor which it has so long received.

The following are extracts from a few of the many letters the Publishers nave received from teachers from all parts of the country in commendation of this work:—

The revised edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar is without doubt the best published in America. I have no doubt that the time is near at hand when this series of works will, by all lovers of the classics, be considered as the 'National Series.' The pronunciation is now by the same class considered the American Standard. I will nail with joy the day when every college and school in our country shall have adopted Prof. Andrews' series as the foundation of true classic knowledge. As such I consider it, and for that reason have I used it since I first knew its existence.—Martin Armstrong, Potomac Seminary, Romney, Va.

Allow me to say, after a careful examination, that, in my judgment, it is the best manual of Latin Grammar to be found in the English language. In revising it the suttor has preserved the happy medium between saying too much and too little, so desirable for a Latin text-book for this country. In philosophical arrangement, simplicity of expression, and for brevity and fulness, it must entitle the author to the first rank m American classical scholarship. I shall use it in my classes, and recommend it to all teachers of Latin in this country—N. E. Cobleigh, Professor of Ancient Languages and Literature, in Laurence University, Appleton, Wis.

I have reason to believe that the improvements, introduced into the last edition of Andrews and Stotherd's Latin Grammar by my respected and lamented friend Dr. Andrews, a little before his death, add very decidedly to the value of a work, which has done more to give the knowledge of that language to the youth of this country than any, perhaps than all others.—Theodor W. Woolsey, President of Yale College, New Hucen.

No book, probably, has done more to improve classical training in American school and Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar. Its use is almost universal: and where it has not itself been adopted as a manual, it has made grammars of similar excellence necessary. The last edition, the sixty-fifth, was carefully revised by the lamented Br. Andrews, not long before his death, by whom it was greadly enlarged by the incorporation of much valuable information, derived mainly from the last edition of the Latin Grammar of Professor Zumpt. It will therefore be found to be much improved as a repository of the principles and facts of the Latin language.—Thomas A. Tracher, Professor of Latin in Vale College, New Haven.

It is unnecessary to commend a Latin Grammar, which has been for twenty years in common use in our Colleges, and has generally superseded all others. The Revised Edition contains the results of the labors of Dr. Andrews, during all that time, on various Latin Classics, and on his great Latin Lexicon; and cannot, therefore, but be greatly improved.—Edward Robinson, D. D., LL. D., Prof. of Biblical Literature in

Union Theol. Semmary, New York City.

I regard Andrews' and Stoldard's new Latin Grammar, as an exceedingly valuable work. It evidently contains the results of the Author's careful and long continued investigation, and from its fulness, clearness, and accuracy, will undoubtedly become the Standard Latin Grammar of this Continent. In Western New York, we have for a long time been using the earlier editions, and they have rapidly won upon the public regard. This new edition will give it a stronger claim upon our favor. It must rapidly supersole all others. I can unhesitatingly recommend the New Grammar as the best in use.—Levis H. Clark, Principal of Scolar standards, Wayne, Co., N. Y.

I have looked over the new edition of the Grammar with great interest. It is now the first property of the property of the property of the first property of the first property of the first property to the first property of the first property to the first property of the first property

I am willing to say that I am decidedly in favor of Andrews' Latin Series. — Geo. Gat., Gales ville University, Wisconsin.

Audrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar I consider decidedly the best Latin Grammar

ever published. - Ransom Norton, North Livermore, Maine-

Such a work as Andrews and Stoddard's Revised Latin Grammar needs no recommendation, it speaks for itself.—A. A. Keen, Professor of Greek and Latin, Tufts College, Medford, Ms.

I have examined the revised edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and think it a complete success. I see it has all of Zumpt's merits and none of his defects, and welcome its advent with great pleasure.—James M. Whiton, Hopkins Grammar School, N.w Haven, Coan.

I have examined Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and say, without hesitation, that the principles of the Latin language can be more easily and systematically acquired from it than any work I have ever seen. The arrangement and simplicity of its terms are such as to make it easily comprehended by the beginner, while, at the same time, its coplousness is smicrient for the most advanced student. The author has evidently noted and profited by the defects in this respect of most of the Latin Grammars now in use.—C. W. Field, Mauch Chunk, Pa.

The superior merits of the original work are too well known and appreciated to need any commendation from me. I have had some means of knowing how great pains and labor Dr. Andrews has bestowed upon this final revision and improvement of the work, and, therefore, was not unprepared to find its acknowledged excellence materially increased, and I do not hesitate to say, that its value has been greatly enhanced, and that it has been brought as near as practicable to the present state of philological science.—John D. Philotrick, Superintendent of Public Schooks, city of Eoston.

Lare looked the Grammar through with much care and a great degree of satisfaction, and I unhestingly pronounce it superior to any Latin Grammar in method and manner of discussion, and happily adapted to the wants of both teachers and pupils.—J. W. Shiryads, Principal of New England Christian Institute, Andover, N. H.

We have lately introduced the Revised Edition, and regard it as a great improvement upon former editions. We shall use it exclusively in future.—E. Flint, Jr., Principal of Let High School.

After a due examination, I am happy to state that the Author has admirably accomplished the objects which he aimed at in making this last revision. He has added much that is in the highest degree valuable without materially changing the arrangement of the original work. The work appears to me well adapted to the daily use of our Classical Schools, and I shall b zreafter direct my classes to use it.—C. L. Cushman, Principal of Peabody Highs School, South Danners, Ms.

The Revised Grammar seems to me greatly improved and to be every thing a scholar could wish.—Z. B. Sturgis, Charlestown, Indiana.

I have subjected the Revised Edition to the test of actual use in the recitation room, and am persuaded that in its present form it decidedly surpasses every other Latin Grammar in point of adaptation to the wants of students in our Academies, High Schools and Colleges.—William S. Palmer, Central High School, Cleaveland, Ohio.

I think Andrews' Series of Latin Works the most systematic and best arranged course I are ver escen,—and believe if our pupils would use them altogether, we should find them much better scholars. I shall use them wholly in my school.—A. C. Stockin, Principal of Momonth Academy, Maint.

The examination of the Revised Edition has afforded me very great pleasure, and leads me to express the deep and sincere conviction that it is the most complete Grammar of the Latin language with which I am acquainted, and best adapted for ready consultation upon any subject connected with the study of Latin Authors. The paper, the typography and the binding,—the whole style of publication—are such as to commend the good instead of judgment of the Publishers.—J. R. Boyd, Principal of Maplewood Young Laties Institute, Pittsfield, Mass.

I find the Revised Edition to be just what is needed for a Latin Grammar,—clear, comprehensive, yet coneise, in the subject matter. I shall introduce it as a permanent textbook.—B. F. Dake, Principal of Clyde High School, Wayne Co., N. Y.

I have carefully examined your Revised Edition throughout, particularly the Corrections and Additions. It now appears to me all that can be desired. It seems like parting with a familiar friend to lay aside the old edition, with its many excellencies, and adopt the new, but I shall cheerfully make the sacrifice for the greater benefit that will accrue to those commencing the study of Latin from time to time.—J. H. Graham, Principal of Northfeld Institution, Vermont.

I thought before that the *old edition* was entitled to the appellation of "The Latin Grammar," but I preceive its value has been much increased by the numerous emendations and additions of Prof. Audrews. The Grammar is now fitted to be a complete hand-book for the Latin scholar during his whole course.—E. W. Johnson, Canton Academy, Canton, N. Y.

I unhesitatingly pronounce the Revised Edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar the best Grammar of the Latin Language, and shall certainly use my influence in its behalf—H. E. J. Clute, Edithoro', Pa.

After a thorough examination, I have no hesitation in pronouncing it the best Latin Grammar for the purposes of the recitation room that I have ever examined. In its present form it ought certainly to displace a large majority of the Grammars in common use. Its rules of Syntax are expressed with accuracy and precision, and are in fact, what all rules ought to be, reliable guides to the learner—James W. Andrews, Principal of Hopewell Landenny, Penn.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, in the arrangement and adaptation to the learner, has excelled all others, and the revised edition is certainly a great improvement, and I do believe is better adapted to the wants of the student than any other. The whole seems to be critically revised and corrected. Prof. Andrews was truly the student's benefactor—M. L. Severance, North Troy, Vermont.

It gives me great pleasure to bear my testimony to the superior merits of the Latin Grammar edited by Professor Andrews and Mr. Stoddard. I express most cheerfully, unhestatingly, and decidedly, my preference of this Grammar to that of Adam, which has, for so long a time, kept almost undisputed sway in our schools.—Dr. C. Beck, Cambridge.

I know of no Grammar published in this country, which promises to answer so well the purposes of elementary classical instruction, and shall be glad to see it introduced into our best schools.—Charles K. Dillauray, Boston.

Your new Latin Grammar appears to me much better suited to the use of students than any 'ther grammar I am acquainted with.—Prof. Wm. M. Hollant, Hartford, Ct.

I have adopted the Latiu Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard in the school under my charge, believing it better adapted, upon the whole, for elementary instruction than any similar work which I have examined. It combines the improvements of the recent German works on the subject with the best features of that old favorite of the schools, Dr. Adam's Latin Grammar—Henry Drister, Professor of Latin in Oblumbia College.

A careful review of the Revised Edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grummar, shows that this farorite text-book still continues to deserve the affections and confidence of Teachers and Pupils, incorporating as it does the results of Prof. Andrews' own constant study for many years with the investigations of English and German Philologists. No other Grammar is now so well fitted to meet the wants of the country as the rapid demand for it will show beyond doubt.—1. S. Hartveld, University of St. Louis.

This Grammar of the Latin Language, now universally pronounced the even best, is greatly improved by the corrections, revisions and additions of this revised edition. We do not believe a text-book was ever written which introduced so great an improvement in the method of teaching Latin, as this has done. We wish the revised edition the greatest success, which we are sure it merits.—Rhode Island Schoolmaster.

I have examined your revised edition with considerable care, and do not hesitate to pronounce it a great improvement upon the old editions, and as near perfection as we are likely to have. I have no doubt it will come into general use.—A. Williams, Professor of Latin, Liferson College, Canonsburg, Page.

I have been much interested in the Revised Biltion. The improvement is very striking, and I shall no longer think of giving it up and putting Zumpf in its place. I am much pleased with the great improvement in the typography. You have given to our schools a book fifty per cent better in every respect, and I trust you will have your reward in largely increased sales.—William J. Rolfe, Master of Oliver High Echool, Laurence, Ms.

I can with much pleasure say that your Grammar seems to me much better adapted to the present condition and wants of our schools than any one with which I am acquainted, and to supply that which has long been wanted—a good Latin Grammar for common use—P. Gardner, Principal of Boston Latin School.

The Latin Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard is deserving, in my opinion, of the apposation which so many of our ablest teachers have bestowed upon it. It is helieved that, of all the grammars before the public, this has greatly the advantage, in regard both to the excellence of its arrangement, and the accuracy and copiousness of its information.—H. E. Hackett, Prof. of Ebbiral Literature in Newton Theological Essimary.

The universal favor with which this Grammar is received was not unexpected. It will beer a thorough and discriminating examination. In the use of well-defined and expressive terms, especially in the syntax, we know of no Latin or Greek grammar which is to be compared to this.—American Quarterly Register.

These works will furnish a series of elementary publications for the study of Latin altogether in advance of any thing which has hitherto appeared, either in this country or in England.—American Ebilical Repository.

I cheerfully and decidedly bear testimony to the superior excellence of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar to any manual of the kind with which I am acquainted. Every part bears the impress of a careful compiler. The principles of syntax are happily developed in the rules, whilst those relating to the moods and tenses supply an important deficiency in our former grammars. The rules of prosody are also clearly and fully exhibited.—Rev. Lyman Coleman, Munchester, W.

This work bears evident marks of great care and skill, and ripe and accurate scholarship in the authors. We cordially commend it to the student and teacher.—Eiblicar Repository.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar is what I expected it would be—an excellent book. We cannot hesitate a moment in laying aside the books now in use, and introducing this.—Rev. J. Penney, D. D., New York.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar bears throughout evidence of original and thorough investigation and sound criticism. It is, in my apprehension, so far as simplicity is concerned, on the one hand, and philosophical views and sound scholarship on the other, far preferable to other grammars; a work at the same time highly creditable to its authors and to our country—Professor J. Packard, Enwidon College, Manne.

I do not hesitate to pronounce Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar superior to any other with which I am acquainted. I have uever seen, any where, a greater amount of valuable matter compressed within limits equally narrow.—Hon. John Hall, Principal of Ellington School, Conn.

We have no hesitation in pronouncing this Grammar decidedly superior to any now in use.—Boy on Recorder.

Dr. Robinson's Gesenius.

Robinson's Hebrew Lexicon. Sixth Edition, Revised and Stereotyped. A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament, including the Biblical Chaldee. Translated from the Latin of William Gesenius, late Professor of Theology in the University of Halle-Wittemberg. By EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. A new edition, with corrections and large additions, partly furnished by the author in manuscript, and partly condensed from his larger Thesaurus, as compiled by Roediger. These corrections and additions were made by Dr. Gesenius, during an interval of several years, while carrying his Thesaurus through the press, and were transcribed and furnished by him expressly for this edition. They will be found to be very numerons, every page having been materially corrected and enlarged, and a large number of articles having been re-written. It is printed on a new type, the face and out of which is very beautiful, and has been highly commended and approved.

Dr. Robinson had already been trained to the business of lexicographical labor, when he began the translation of the present work. He is, in an uncommon degree, master of his own native tongue. He has diligence, patience, perseverance—yea, the iron dili-gence of Gesenius himself. For aught that I have yet been able to discover, all that can reasonably be expected or desired, has been done by the translator; not only as to rendering the work into English, but as to the manner and the accuracy of printing. The using the work many negative, we as to the analite and the accuracy or printing. The work will speak for itself, on the first opening. It does honor, in its appearance, to editor, printers, and publishers. I have only to add my hearty wish, that its beautiful white pages may be consulted and turned over, until they become thoroughly worn with the hands of the purchasers .- Prof. Stuart, in the Biblical Repository.

There is no lexicon in English that can be put on a level with Robinson's. I recommend the present as the best Lexicon of the Hebrew and Biblical Chaldee which an English scholar can have. - Rev. Dr. Samuel Davidson, of London.

Gesenius' Lexicon is known wherever Hebrew is studied. On the merits of this work criticism has long ago pronounced its verdict of approval .- London Jewish Chronicle.

This is a very beautiful and complete edition of the best Hebrew Lexicon ever yet produced. Gesenius, as a Hebrew philologist, is unequalled.—London Clerical Journal. This is decidedly the most complete edition of Gesenius' Manual Hebrew Lexicon.— London Journal of Sacred Literature.

Harmony of the Gospels, in Greek.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels, in Greek, according to the text of Hahn. Newly arranged, with Explanatory Notes, by EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union The-ological Seminary, New York. Revised Edition.

This work of Dr. Robinson confines itself to the legitimate sphere of a Harmony of the Gospels; and we do not hesitate to say that in this sphere it will be found to be all that a Harmony need or can be. The original text is printed with accuracy and elegance. It is a feast to the eyes to look upon a page of so much beauty. Its arrangement is dis-tinguished for simplicity and convenience. No one will ever be able to comprehend the relations of the Gospels to each other, or acquire an exact knowledge of their contents, unless he studies them with the aid of a Harmony. The present work furnishes in this respect just the facility which is needed; and we trust that among its other effects, it will serve to direct attention more strongly to the importance of this mode of study.-Prof. Hackett, of Newton Theological Seminary.

Palmer's Arithmetic.

Arithmetic, Oral and Written, practically applied by means of Suggestive Questions. By Thomas H. Palmer, Author of the Prize Essay on Education entitled the "Teacher's Manual," "The Moral Instructor," etc.

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Robinson's Harmony of the Gospels, in English.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels, in English, according to the common version; newly arranged, with Explanatory Notes. By

EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D.

The object of this work is to obtain a full and consecutive account of all the facts of our Lord's life and ministry. In order to do this, the four gospel narratives have been so brought together, as to present as nearly as possible the true chronological order, and where the same transaction is described by more than one writer, the different accounts are placed side by side, so as to fill out and supply each other. Such an arrangement affords the only full and perfect survey of all the testimony relating to any and every portion of our Lord's history. The evangelists are thus made their own best interpreters; and it is shown how wonderfully they are supplementary to each other in minute as well as in important particulars, and in this way is brought out fully and elearly the fundamental characteristics of their testimony, unity in diversity. To Bible classes, Subbath schools, and all who love and seek the truth in their closets and in their families, this work will be found a useful assistant.

I have used "Robinson's English Harmony" in teaching a Bible Class. The result, in my own mind, is a conviction of the great merits of this work, and its adaptation to import the highest life and interest to Bible Class exercises, and generally to the diligent study of the Gospel. It is much to be desired that every one accustomed to searching the Scriptures should have this invaluable aid.—Rev. Dr. Skinner, New York.

Robinson's Dictionary of the Bible.

Robinson's Bible Dictionary. A Dictionary for the use of Schools and Young Persons. By EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D. Illustrated with Engravings on wood, and Maps of Canaan, Judea, Asia Minor, and the Peninsula of Mount Sinai, Idumea, etc.

Elements of Astronomy.

The Elements of Astronomy; or The World as it is and as it Appears. By the author of "Theory of Teaching," "Edward's First Lessons in Grammar," etc. Revised in manuscript by George P. Bond, Esq., of the Cambridge Observatory, to whom the author is also indebted for superintending its passage through the press.

Scott's Family Bible.

Scott's Family Bible. Boston Stereotype Edition. 8 vols. royal 8vo., containing all the Notes, Practical Observations, Marginal References, and Critical Remarks, as in the most approved London edition, with a line engraved likeness of the Author, Family Record, etc.

This Edition is the only one that has, or can have, the benefit of the final Additions and Eigenhations of the Author. The extent of these may be indiged from the fact that upwards of Four Hundred Pages of letter-press were abled; and as they consist chiefly of Critical Remarks, their importance to the Biblical student is at once apparent. The Preface to the entire work contains an elaborate and compendious view of the evidences that the Holy Scriptures were given by inspiration of God. Prefixed to each Book, both in the Old and New Testament, is an Introduction, or statement of its purport and attent. There are also copious Marginal References, with various Tables, a have get a lindex, and a copious Topical Index.

GRAMMAR

OF THE

LATIN LANGUAGE;

FOR THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

BY

E. A. ANDREWS AND S. STODDARD.

ONE HUNDREDTH EDITION.

REVISED WITH CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS,

BY E. A. ANDREWS, LL. D.

BOSTON:

PUBLISHED BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER.

New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

1868.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1857,

BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Massachusetts.

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PREFACE.

As more than twenty years have elapsed, since the first publication of this Grammar, it can scarcely be necessary, in offering to the public a revised edition of the work, to make more than a passing allusion to its original plan or to the circumstances to which it owed its origin.

For some years previous to the date of its publication, the progress of classical learning in Europe, and particularly in Germany, had been such, as plainly to indicate the necessity of a corresponding advance in the manuals of Latin grammar employed in the schools of this country. Their deficiencies had indeed become so apparent, that various attempts had already been made to furnish a remedy by means of translations of German grammars; but none of these, however excellent in many respects, had seemed to be fully adapted to the purpose for which they were intended.

To unite the acknowledged excellencies of the older English manuals and of the more recent German grammars was the special aim of the authors of this work; and to this end their attention was directed, first to the preparation of more extended rules for the pronunciation of the language, secondly to a clearer exposition of its inflectional changes, thirdly to the proper basis of its syntax, and fourthly to greater precision in its rules and definitions.

The system of rules for the division and accentuation of Latin words, prepared in pursuance of the plan which has just been specified, was accordingly more copious than any previously found in the Latin grammars in common see in this country. For the purpose also of preventing the formation of erroneons habits of pronunciation in the early part of the student's course, the penultimate quantities of all Latin words occurring in the Grammar were curefully marked, unless determinable by some general rule, and the paradigms were divided and accented in such a manner as to indicate their true propunciation.

In their treatment of Latin etymology, the authors aimed to render its study less a mere exercise of memory, and in a greater degree an efficient aid in the general cultivation of the mental powers. The principal means adopted for this purpose consisted in the practical distinction, every where made in treating infiseted words, between the root, or ground-form, and the termination.

The third prominent , eculiarity of the original work was its direct derivation of the rules of Syntax from the logical analysis of sentences, and its distinct specification of the particular use of each of the several words of which a sentence is composed. This method of treating syntax—a method previously unknown in the schools of this country—has, since that period, been extensively adopted, and in some instances greatly extended, particularly in a portion of the English grammars recently published in this country, and has probably contributed more to the advancement of grammatical science, than any other invocation of modern times.

The errors noticed in the original work have been corrected, as successive editions have issued from the press, but no opportunity has occurred, until the present, of thoroughly revising it in every part. Two years of continuous labor have now been devoted to its revision, and to the purpose of rendering it conformable in all respects to the advanced position which it originally aspired to occupy.

In all the modifications which have now been made, I have aimed to accomplish these two purposes-to preserve, as far as possible, the identity of the work, and at the same time to bring it as near, as should be practicable, to the present state of philological science. Hence, while I have made no changes either in language or arrangement, but such as appeared to me quite necessary, I have omitted none which logical accuracy or requisite fulness of explanation seemed to demand. In doing even this it soon became evident, that the changes and additions must be more numerous, than would well consist with the convenient use of the old and the new editions in the same classes. Though not insensible of the trouble occasioned to the teacher by alterations in a familiar text-book, I could not but suppose, that such modifications as the progress of the last twenty years had rendered necessary, would still be welcomed by him, notwithstanding the personal inconvenience arising from the disturbance of his previous associations. To his pupils, who will have known no other form of the Grammar, than that in which it now appears, the work, it is believed, will not only be as easy of comprehension in its new, as in its old form, but in its practical application far more satisfactory.

Of the minor changes and additions occurring on almost every page, and even of the occasional rear agement of small portions of the materials, it is unnecessary to speak partialarly. The student familiar with former editions will at once detect these slight modifications, and note them in his memory for future use; and though he may fail to find a rule, exception, or remark on the page where he has been wont to see it, he will still meet with it in the same relative position,—in the same section and subdivision of the section in which it formerly appeared.

In the department of Orthoepy will now be found some account of the Con tinental mode of pronouncing Latin; and, by means of the joint exhibition of this and of the English methods, the student will be able to use the Grammar with equal facility, whether choosing to adhere to the usual pronunciation of English and American scholars, or preferring that of the continental schools.

In the Etymology of nouns, no other alteration need be specified, except the introduction, in the third declension, of "Rules for forming the nominative singular from the root." These are copied, in a modified form, from the editor's First Latin Book. In themselves they are of considerable utility in showing the mutual relations between the sounds of certain letters, and they are also closely connected with corresponding changes in some of the verbal roots. In the Etymology of adjectives, besides the minor modifications already alluded to, a few changes in arrangement have been made in those sections which relate to Comparison. To pronouns have been added some remarks on Pronominal Adjectives, which seemed to require a more particular notice, than they had heretofore received, both in their relation to each other and to the Adverbial Correlatives. The Etymology of particles has been treated somewhat more fully than in former editions—a fulness especially observable in relation to adverbs and conjunctions, and which was rendered necessary by the more extended treatment of those particles in the revised Syntax.

In almost every section of the Syntax the student will meet with modifications and especially with additions, which, as in other parts of the work, are introduced in such a manner as seldom to interfere with the references made to former editions in the series based upon this Grammar. The principal exception to the latter remark is to be found in sections 247—251, which relate to certain uses of the ablative.

A comparison of the Prosody in the present and former editions will show, that it has been revised with minute care in every part. Similar attention has also been given to the Appendix, in which will be found some additions relating to Roman Money, Weights and Measures. For the greater convenience of he student the Index in this edition has been much enlarged.

In conclusion, I would briefly indicate the principal sources from which have been derived the various additions and correctious, to which alusion has been made. In preparing the original work, the earlier editions of Zumpt's Grammar were consulted at almost every step, and while frequent use was made of the grammars of Scheller, Grant, Adam, Ruddiman, Hickie and chers, the treatises of Zumpt were even then regarded as the most valuable embodiment of the principles of Latin philology. It was therefore natural and almost unavoidable, in revising a work which had in so many points received both its form and its substance from the earlier labors of that distinguished grammarian, to look to his maturer works for many of the materials by means of which our original sketch should be made more complete. Accordingly I have constantly consulted the last edition c his Grammar, translated by Dr. Schmitz, and have freely incorporated in this edition such

of its materials, as were suited to my purpose. In most cases his ideas have been either expressed in my own language, or in language so modified as to suit the general plan of my work. In the Etymology, and not unfrequently in the Syntax also, the copious Grammar of Ramshorn has furnished valuable materials; and the Grammars of Key and of Kühner, the latter translated by Prof. Champlin, have been consulted with profit and satisfaction. In the sections comprising conjunctions, and especially in those relating to grammatical analysis, I am happy to acknowledge my indebtedness to Prof. S. S. Greene of Brown University. To the sources already specified I must add the Latin Lexicon of Dr. Freund, in editing a translation of which I had frequent occasion to note such matters as promised to be of utility in the revision of this Grammar. The additions in the Appendix relating to Roman money, etc., are taken principally from Dr. Riddle's translation of Dr. Freund's School Dictionary. To these references I will only add, that such other notes relating to Latin philology, as I have made during the past twenty years, so far as they were adapted to my purpose, have either been used in my former occasional corrections, or are incorporated in the present edition.

In taking a final leave of the earliest of the elementary Latin works with which my name has been associated, and with which, in my own mind, must ever be connected the pleasant memory of my early friend and associate, Prof. Stoddard, I trust I shall be pardoned in commending it once more to the kind indulgence of the teachers of this country, and in expressing the hope that, in its present form, it will be deemed not altogether unworthy of a continuance of the favor which it has so long received. I cannot indeed venture to indulge the hope, that all the imperfections of the work have even now been removed, or that, in my attempts to render it more perfect, I may not sometimes have fallen into new errors; but this I can truly say that since its first publication I have devoted much time to its revision, and have sought to manifest my sense of the kindness with which it has been received, by doing all in my power to render it less unworthy of public favor.

E. A ANDREWS.

New Britain, Conn., Oct., 1857.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

§ 1. The Latin language is the language spoken by the ancient Romans. Latin Grammar teaches the principles of the Latin language. These relate,

1. To its written characters;

2. To its pronunciation;3. To the classification and derivation of its words;

To the construction of its sentences;

5. To the quantity of its syllables, and its versification.

The first part is called Orthography; the second, Orthoëpy; the third, Etymology; the fourth, Syntax; and the fifth, Prosody.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

- § 2. Orthography treats of the letters, and other characters of written language, and the proper mode of spelling words.
- 1. The Latin alphabet consists of twenty-five letters. They have the same names as the corresponding characters in English. They are A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

2. The Romans used only the capital letters.

3. I and j were anciently but one character, as were likewise u and v.
4. W is not found in Latin words, and k occurs only at the beginning of a few words before a, and even in these c is commonly used, except in their abbreviated form; as, K or Kal. for Kalendas or Calendas, the Calends.

Y and z are found only in words derived from the Greek.
 H, though called a letter, only denotes a breathing, or aspiration.

DIVISION OF LETTERS.

§ 3. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

1. The vowels are .		 a, e, i, o, u, y.
	CLiquide	1 m m m
	(Labials, .	 p. b. f. v.
The consonants are	Mutes, Palatals, .	 c, q, k, q, i.
divided into	(Linguals,	 t, d.
	Sibilant,	 s.
	Double consonants	 x, z.
	Aspirate,	 h.

 X is equivalent to cs or gs; z to ts or ds; and, except in compound words, the double consonant is always written, instead of the letters which it represents. In some Greek words x is equivalent to chs.

DIPHTHONGS.

§ 4. Two vowels, in immediate succession, in the same svllable, are called a diphthong.

The diphthongs are ae, ai, au, ei, eu, oe, oi, ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, and yi. Ae and oe are frequently written together, a, a.

PUNCTUATION.

The only mark of punctuation used by the ancients was a point, which denoted pauses of different length, according as it was placed at the top, the middle, or the bottom of the line. The moderns use the same marks of punctuation, in writing and printing Latin, as in their own languages, and assign to them the same power.

Marks of quantity and of accent are sometimes found in Latin authors, espe-

cially in elementary works:-

- 1. There are three marks of quantity, viz. , -, *; the first denotes that the vowel over which it stands is short; the second, that it is long; the third, that it is doubtful, that is, sometimes long and sometimes short.
- 2. There are also three written accents—the acute ('), the grave ('), and the circumflex ('). These were used by the old grammarians to denote the rising and sinking of the voice in the Roman mode of pronouncing words. (See §§ 14 and 15.) In modern elementary Latin works, the acute marks the emphatic syllable of a word, (§ 16), the grave distinguishes certain particles from other words spelled in the same manner; as, quòd, because; quod, which; and the circumflex is placed over certain penultimate and final syllables that are formed by contraction.

The diæresis (") denotes that the vowel over which it stands does not form a diphthong with the preceding vowel; as, aër, the air. It

is used principally with ae, ai, and oe.

ORTHOËPY.

§ 6. Orthoëpy treats of the right pronunciation of words.

The ancient pronunciation of the Latin language being in a great measure lost, the learned, in modern times, have applied to it those principles which regulate the pronunciation of their own languages; and hence has arisen, in

different countries, a great diversity of practice.

The various systems now prevalent in Europe, may, however, he reduced to two—the Continental and the English—the former prevailing, with only slight diversities, in most of the countries of continental Europe, and the latter in England. Their principal difference is found in the pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs, since, in both methods, the consonants are pronounced in nearly the same manner.

THE CONTINENTAL METHOD.

[According to this system, each of the vowels, when standing at the end of a syllable, is considered as having but one sound, which, however, may be either short or long. Thus,

Short \bar{a} , as in hat.

Long \bar{a} , as in father.

Short \bar{c} , as in met.

Long \bar{c} , as in there.

Short \bar{i} , as in sit.

Long \bar{i} , as in sit.

Long \bar{i} , as in full. \bar{a} or \bar{c} , as e in there.

au, as ou in our.

Eu, as in fieldal.

Short \bar{b} , as in not.

eu, as in fieldal.

ei, as i in ice.

REMARK. These sounds are sometimes slightly modified when followed by a consonant in the same syllable.]

THE ENGLISH METHOD.

In the following rules for dividing and pronouncing Latin words, regard has been had both to English analogy and to the laws of Latin accentuation. See § 14 and 15. The basis of this system is that which is exhibited by Walker in his "Pronunciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names." To pronounce cortectly, according to this method, a knowledge of the following particulars is requisite—

1. Of the sounds of the letters in all their combinations.

Of the quantities of the penultimate and final syllables.
 Of the place of the accent, both primary and secondary.

4. Of the mode of dividing words into syllables.

OF THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

I. OF THE VOWELS.

§ 7. A vowel, when ending an accented syllable, has always its long English sound; as,

pa'-ter, de'-dit, vi'-vus, to'-tus, tu'-ba, Ty'-rus; in which the accounted vowels are pronounced as in fatal, metre, vital, total, tutor tyrant.

- A, at the end of an unaccented syllable, has nearly the sound
 of a in father or in ah, but less distinct or prolonged; as, mu'sa,
 s-pis'-ti-la, a-cer'-bus, Pal-a-më-des; pronounced mu'-zah, etc.
- 2. E, o, and u, at the end of an unaccented syllable, have nearly the same sound as when accented, but shorter and less distinct; as, re'-te, vo'-lo, u'-su-i.
 - (a.) I final has always its long sound; as, qui, au'-di, le-gā'-ti.
 REM. 1. The final i of tibi and sibi has its short sound.
- (b.) I, at the end of an unaccented syllable not final, has an indistinct sound like short e; as, Fa'-bi-us (fa'-be-us), phi-los'- \check{o} -phus (phe-los'-o-phus).

Exc. I has its long sound in the first syllable of a word the second of which is eacented, when it either stands alone before a consonant, as in *-do'-ne-us, or ends a syllable before a vowel, as in fi-c'-bum.

- REM. 2. Y is always pronounced like i in the same situation.
- § S. A vowel has always its short English sound, when followed by a consonant in the same syllable; as,

mag'-nus, reg'-num, fin'-go, hoc, fus'-tis, cyg'nus, in which the vowels are pronounced as in magnet, seldom, finish, copy, lustre, symbol.

EXCEPTION 1. A, when it follows qu before dr and rt, has the sounds of a in quadrant and in quart; as, qua'-dro, quadra-qin'-ta, quar'-tus. In other connections a before r has the sound of a in part; as, par-ti-ceps, ar'-ma; except when followed by another r, as in par-ri-ci'-da.

- Exc. 2. Es, at the end of a word, is pronounced like the English word ease; as, ig'-nes, au'-des.
- Exc. 3. Os, at the end of plural cases, is pronounced like ose in dose; as, nos, il'-los, dom'-ĭ-nos.
- Exc. 4. Post is pronounced like the same word in English; so also are its compounds; as, post-quam, post-e-a.; but not its derivatives; as, post-rē-mus.
- Exc. 5. E, i and y before final r, or before r in a syllable not final, when followed in the next syllable by any other consonant, except r, have the sound of e and i in the English words her and fir; as, fer, fert, ferti-lis; hir, hircus, myr'-tus.

II. OF THE DIPHTHONGS.

- § 9. Ae and oe are always diphthongs unless separated by discresis. They are pronounced as e would be in the same situation; as, e^{z} -tas, e^{z} -tas, pe^{z} -na, ez-tum.
- Ai, ei, oi, and yi, usually have the vowels pronounced separately. When they are accented, and followed by another vowel, the i is pronounced like initial y, and the vowel before it has its long sound; as, Maia, Pompeius, Troia, Harpyia; pronounced Mu'-ya, Pom-pe'-yus, Tro'-ya, Har-py'-ya

REMARK 1. Ei, when a diphthong and not followed by another vowel, is pronounced like i; as in hei, one'-neis.

2. Au, when a diphthorg, is pronounced like aw; as, laus, au'-rum, pronounced laws, etc.

REM. 2. In the termination of Greek proper names, the letters au are pronounced separately; as, Men-e-lā-us.

3. Eu, when a diphthong, is pronounced like long u; as, heu, Orpheus (or-phuse), Eu-phrā-tes.

REM. 3. The letters eu are pronounced separately in the terminations eus and eum of Latin nouns, and of all adjectives, whether Greek or Latin, except neuter; as, ur'-ce-us, me'-us, me'-um, e'-um. In other situations they form a diphthong; as, Eu-ro'-pa, The'-seus, e'-heu.

4. Ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, when diphthongs, are pronounced like wa, we, etc.; as, lin'-gua, quë-ror, sua'-de-o, quo'-tus, ë-quus. They are always diphthongs after q, usually also after g, and often after s.

5. Ui in cui and huic, when monosyllables, is pronounced like wi, and by some like long i.

III. OF THE CONSONANTS.

§ 10. The consonants have, in general, the same power in Latin as in English words.

The following cases, however, require particular attention.

C.

C has the sound of s before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs a, a, and eu; as, ce'-do, ci'-bus, Ca'-sur, ce'-lum, ceu, Cy'-rus. In other situations, it has the sound of k; as, Ca'-to, cru'-dus, lac.

1. Ch has always the sound of k; as, charta (kar'-tah), machina

(mak'-ĕ-nah).

Exc. C, following or ending an accented syllable, before i followed by a vowel, and also before en and yo, has the sound of sh; as, socia (so'-she-sh), caduceus (ca-du'she-sh), Sicyon (sish'-e-on).

REMARK. In the pronunciation of the ancient Romans, the hard sound of c and g seems to have been retained in all their combinations.

G.

G has its soft sound, like j, before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs x and x; as ge'-nus, ag'-i-lis, Gy'-ges, Gx-iv'-li. In other situations, it has its hard sound, as in bag, go.

Exc. When g comes before g soft, it coalesces with it in sound; as, agger (aj'-er), exaggeratio (ex-aj-e-ra'-she-o).

Š.

§ 11. S has generally its hissing sound, as in so, thus.

Exc. 1. (a.) When si followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by a consonant in an accented syllable, the s has the sound of sh; as. Per si-a (per she a).

(b.) But when si or zi followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by an accented vowel, the s or z has the sound of zh; as, .As-px'-si-a (as-pa'-zhe-ah), Sa-ba'-zi-a (sa-ba'-zhe-ah).

Note. In a few proper names, s preceded by a rowel in an accented syllable and followed by i before another rowel, has the sound, not of zh, but of sh; as, A^{r} -si-a (a^{r} -she-a): so Sosta, Theolosia, Lysias.

Exc. 2. S, at the end of a word, after e, α , au, b, m, n, and r, has the sound of z; as, res, αs , laus, trabs, hi'-ems, lens, Mars.

English analogy has also occasioned the s in Cx'-sar, cx-sū'-ra, mi'-ser, mu'-sa, re-sid'-u-um, cau'-sa, ro'-sa, and their derivatives, and in some other words, to take the sound of z. Cx-sar-re'-a, and the oblique cases of Cx-sar, retain the hissing sound; so likewise the compounds of trans; ss, trans'-co.

T.

§ 12. 1. T, following or ending an accented syllable before i followed by a vowel, has the sound of sh; as, ratio (ra'-she-o), Sulpitius (sul-pish'-e-us).

Exc. T, in such case, retains its hard sound (a) after s, t, or x; as, Sal-lus-ti-us, Bru-'-ti-i, Sex-ti-us: (b) in proper names in tion and tyon; as, Ex-ryt'-i-on, Am-phic'-ty-on; and (c) in old infinitives in er; as, flec'-ti-er, for flec'-ti.

X.

2. X, at the beginning of a syllable, has the sound of z; at the end, that of ks; as, Xenŏphon (zen'-o-phon); axis (ak'-sis).

Exc. 1. When ex or ux is followed by a vowel in an accented syllable, x has the sound of gz; as, exemplum (eg-zem'-plum), ux-o'-ri-us (ug-zo'-re-us), inexhaustus (in-eg-zaus'-tus).

Exc. 2. X, ending an accented syllable before i followed by a vowel, and

before u ending a syllable, has the power of ksh; as, noxius (nok'-she-us),

pexui (pek'-shu-i).

REMARK. Ch and ph, before th, in the beginning of a word, are silent; as, Chihomia (thé-ni-a), Phihia (thi'-a). Also in the following combinations of consonants, in the beginning of words of Greek origin, the first letter is not sounded:—mne-mon'-1-ca, gna'-wus, sma'-in, Ctc'-si-ca, Phot-e-mon'-us, pau'-lo.

OF THE QUANTITIES OF THE PENULTIMATE AND FINAL SYLLABLES.

- § 13. 1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.
- A short syllable requires, in pronunciation, half the time of a long one.

REM. The penultimate syllable, or penult, is the last syllable but one. The antepenult is the last syllable but two.

The quantity of a syllable is generally to be learned from the rules of prosody, §§ 232— 501; but for the convenience of the student, the following general rules are here inserted:—

3. A vowel before another vowel or h is short.

4. Diphthongs, not beginning with u, are long.

- 5. A vowel before x, z, j, or any two consonants, except a mute followed by a liquid, is long by position, as it is called.
- 6. A vowel naturally short before a mute followed by a liquid is common, i. e. either long or short.

In this Grammar, when the quantity of a penult is determined by one of the preceding rules, it is not marked; in other cases, except in dissyllables, the proper mark is written

over its vowel

To pronounce Latin words correctly, it is necessary to ascertain the quantities of their last two syllables only; and the rules for the quantities of final syllables would, for this purpose, be unnecessary, but for the occasional addition of encilities. As these are generally monosyllables, and, for the purpose of accentuation, are considered as parts of the words to which they are annexed, they cause the final syllable of the original word to become the penult of the compound. But as the enclitics begin with a consonant, the final vowels of all words ending with a consonant, if previously short, are, by the addition of an enclitic, made long by position. It is necessary, therefore, to learn the quantities of those final syllables only which end with a vowel.

OF ACCENTUATION.

I. OF LATIN ACCENTS.

- 1. Accent, in Latin, signifies the rising and falling of the voice in pronouncing the syllables of a Latin word. It is a general rule of the Latin language, that every word has its accent. The enclitics, however, have no accent of their own, but they modify the accent of the words to which they are annexed, and prepositions lose their accent, when they precede the cases which they govern.
- The Latin language has three accents, the acute ('), or rising tone, the grave (1), or falling tone, and the circumflex (1), composed of the acute and the grave, i. e. of the rising and the falling tone.
- A monosyllable, when short by nature, takes the acute, when long by nature, the circumflex accent; as, pix, êt, pars; dôs, jûs, spês.
- In words of two syllables, the penult is always accented; as, pă'ter, mā'-ter, pen'-na.
- REM. 1. Words of two syllables have the circumflex accent, when the vowel of the penult is naturally long and that of the last syllable short; as, Rô-mã, mô-sa, Rô-cê, jà-rīs; if otherwise, they have the acute; as, hô-mã, dê-câ, Rô-cê, and ard -re, in which als long only by position.
- In words of more than two syllables, if the penult is long, it is accented; but if it is short, the accent is on the antepenult; as, a-mī'-cus, dom'-i-nus.
- REM. 2. When the accent of a word of more than two syllables falls upon the penult, It may be either the circumflex or the acute according as the last syllable is short or long The antepenult can take no accent except the acute, and in no case can the accent be drawn farther back than to the antepenult.
- Exc. Vocatives of the second declension in i, instead of ie, from nominatives in ius, and genitives in i, instead of ii, are accented as they would be, if the rejected letters were annexed, i. e. with the acute upon the penult, even when it is short; as, Vir-gil-i; Va-le'-ri, in-ge'-ni. So, also, the compounds of facio with words which are not prepositions; as, cal-e-fa'-cit, tep-e-fa'-cit.
- § 15. If the repult is common, the accent, in prose, is upon the antepenult; as, vol'-ŭ-cris, phar'-ĕ-tra, ib'-ĭ-que: but genitives in ius, in which i is common, accent their penult in prose; as u-ni'-us. is-ti'-us.

 \cdot Rem. 8. All the syllables of a Latin word, except that on which the acute or circumflex accent falls, are supposed to have the grave accent, and were pronounced with the lower tone.

 The rules for the accentuation of compound and simple words are the same; as, se'-cum, sub'-e-o.

In accentuation, the enclitics que, ne, ve, and also those which
are annexed to pronouns,* are accounted constituent parts of the words
to which they are subjoined; as, i*-la, it'-a-que; vi*-rum, vi*-rum*-que.

II. OF ENGLISH ACCENTS.

§ 16. Accent, in English, is a particular stress of voice upon certain syllables of words. Cf. § 5, 2.

According to the English method of pronouncing Latin, a word may have two, three, or even four accents. That accent which is nearest to the termination of the word, and which always corresponds in position with the Latin accent, is called the primary or principal accent, and the secondary accent is that which next precedes the primary. The third and fourth accents, in like manner, precede the secondary, and are subject in all respects to the same rules; as, pa-te-ter, ma-ter, ser-mo-nes, dom-i-ms; pe-ric-i-lum, con'-ju-ra'-ti-o, op''-por-tu'-ni-ta'-tes, ex-er'''-c-ta''-ti-on''-i-bus'-que.

1. If only two syllables precede the primary accent, the secondary accent is on the first; as, mod"-e-rā'-tus, tol'-e-rab'-\(i\)-is.

 If three or four syllables stand before the primary accent, the secondary accent is placed, sometimes on the first, and sometimes on the second syllable; as, de-mon" stra-ban'-tur, ad"-o-les-cen'-ti-a.

 Some words which have only four syllables before the primary accent, and all which have more than four, have three accents; as, mod"-e-rd-"t-if-o-ris, theo-rem, ex-er"----t-if-if-o-ris.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

VOWELS.

§ 17. Every Latin word is to be divided into as many syllables, as it has separate vowels and diphthongs.

REMARK. In the following rules, the term vowel includes not only single vowels, but diphthongs; and when a particular vowel is mentioned, a diphthong, also, ending with that vowel is intended.

CONSONANTS.

SPECIAL RULES.

- § 18. REMARK. The following special rules, relating to particular letters or to particular combinations of letters, are in all cases to be regarded rather than the general rules, §§ 19—23, when the latter are inconsistent with the former.
- 1. H, when standing alone between two vowels, is always joined to the rowel that follows it.

Thus, mi'-hi, tra'-he-re, co'-hors, co''-hor-ta'-ti-o.

^{*}These are te, met, pte, ce cine, and dem; as, tute, egomet, meapte, hicce, hiccine, idem

Ch, ph, and th, in the division of words into syllables, are considered, not as separate letters, but as single aspirated mutes, and hence are never separated.

Thus, A-chil'-les, Ach''-ra-di'-na, Neph'-ĕ-le, Te'-thys.

 Gl, tl, and thl, when standing alone between any two vowels, unless the first be u, and bt after u are always separated.

Thus, Æg'-le, Ag-law'-rus, At'-las, ath-let'-i-cus; — Pub'-li-us, Pub-lic'-o-la, respub'-li-ca.

4. In writing syllables, x, when standing alone between two vowels, is united to the vowel before it, but, in pronouncing such syllables, its elementary sounds are separated.

Thus, sax'-um (sak'-sum); ax-il'-la (ak-sil'-lah); ex-em'-plum (eg-zem'-plum); ex-o'-ri-us (ug-zo'-re-us).

GENERAL RULES.

L SIMPLE WORDS.

A .- A single Consonant between two Vowels.

1. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, between the last two coverels of a word, or between the vowels of any two unaccented syllables, must be joined to the latter vowel.

Exc. Tib'-i and sib'-i are commonly excepted.

§ 20. 2. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, before the vowel of an accented syllable, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, t in i-tin'-t-ra; d in ti-de'-to; th in \alpha-the'-ri-us; cl in Eu-cll'-des and Her''-a-cll'-a; g r in a-gres'-tis and a-gric'-b-la; pr in ca-pre'-b-lus; q in \alpha-qua'-ri-us; and \beta-phr in Eu-phr'd'tes.

§ 21. 3. A single consonant after the vowel of any accented syllable, except a penult, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, m in dom'-i-nus and dom''-i-na'-ti-o; t in pat'-ĕ-ra; th in Scyth'-i-a; and q in aq'-ui-la (ak'-we-lah), and Aq''-ui-ta'-ni-a (ak''-we-ta'-ne-ah).

 When a mute with l or r follows the vowel of any accented syllable, except the penult, the mute is to be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, cr in ac'-ri-ter, ac'-ri-mo'-ni-a; tr in det'-ri-men'-tum; pr in cap'-ri-pes, cap'-ri-mul'-gus, phl in Pap'- 'a-go'-ni-a; and phr in Aph''-ro-dis'-i-a. Respecting phl and phr c ! § 18, 2.

EXCEPTIONS TO THE 3D AND 4TH RULES.

Exc. 1. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, after an accented a, e, or o, and before two vowels the first of which is e, i, or y, must be joined to the syllable following the accent.

Thus, d in ra'-di-us, ta'-di-um, me'-di-a'-tor; r in ha'-re-o, (u''-ry-a'-tes, ch in bra'-chi-um; q in re'-qui-es-re'-qui-es-re-o; tr in pa'-tri-us, (E-no'-tri-a, and r and f in ee'-re- e^{-1} -ta.

Exc. 2. A single consonant or a mute with l or r, after an accented u, must be joined to the vowel following it.

Thus, r in lu'-ri-dus, au'-re-us; cr in Eu'-cri-tus; gl in ju'-glans; and pl in Nau'-pli-us, du'-pli-co, and du''-pli-ca'-ti-o. Cf. § 18, 3.

§ 22. B.—Two Consonants between two Vowels.

Any two consonants, except a mute followed by l or r in the cases before mentioned, when standing between two vowels, must be separated.

Thus, rp in cor'-pus, rm in for'-ma and ger-ma'nus; rv in ca-ter'-va; sc in ad-o-tes'-cens; rn in an'-nus; phth in aph'-tha; cch in Bac'-chus and Bac'-chus and an'-tha; and th in at-th'-ta.

C.—Three or four Consonants between two Vowels.

 When three consonants stand between any two vowels, the last, or, if that be l or r after a mute, the two last, are joined to the latter vowel.

Thus, mpt in emp'-tor, ad-emp'-ti-o; str in fe-nes'-tra; mpl in ex-em'-plum; rthr in ar-thri'-tis.

2. When four consonants stand between two vowels, two are joined to each vowel; as, nstr in trans-trum.

II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 23. 1. In dividing a compound word into syllables the component parts are to be separated, if the former part ends with a consonant; as, ab-es-se, in'-ers, cir'-cum-er'-ro, su'-pri-ext, sub'-t-ux, suc'-ter'-e-a, trans'-t-tur, sub'-stru-o. So, also, if a consonant is inserted to prevent hiatus, it is joined to the preceding vowel; as, prod'-e-o, red'-e-o, sed'-t'-i-o.

2. But if the former part either ends with a vowel, or has dropped its termination, it is to be divided like a simple word; as, def-ĕ-ro, dil'-t-gens, be-nev'-o-lus, præs'-to, eg'-ŏ-met;—po'-tes, po-tcs'-tis, an''si-mad-ver'-to, ve'-ne-o (from venum, eo), mag-nan'-i-n-s, am-bā'-ges, lon-gœ'-vus.

ETYMOLOGY.

§ 24. 1. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, their derivation, and their various inflections.

 The classes, into which words are divided in reference to their signification are called Parts of Speech.

- 3. The parts of speech in Latin are eight—Substitutive or Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.
- 4. The first four are inflected; the last four, which are sometimes called Particles, are not inflected, except that some adverbs change their termination to express comparison.

Rem. Substantives, pronouns, and adjectives are often included by grammarians under the general term nouns; but, in this Grammar, the word noun is used as synonymous with substantive only.

- § 25. 1. To verbs belong Participles, Gerunds, and Supines, which partake of the meaning of the verb, and the inflection of the noun.
- Inflection, in Latin grammar, signifies a change in the termination of a word. It is of three kinds—declension, conjugation, and comparison.
- 3. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, participles, gerunds, and supines, are declined; verbs are conjugated, and adjectives and adverbs are compared.

NOUNS.

- § 26. 1. A substantive or noun is the name of an object.
- 2. A proper noun is the name of an individual object; as, Cæsar; Rōma, Rome; Tibĕris, the Tiber.
- 3. A common or appellative noun is the name of a class of objects, to each of which it is alike applicable; as, hōmo, man or a man; avis, a bird; quercus, an oak; leo, a lion; mendacium, a falsehood.
- 4. A collective noun is one which, in the singular number, denotes a collection of individuals; as, exercitus, an army.
- REM. 1. The following are examples of nouns used as collectives, viz. exercitus, gene juventus, multitudo, nobilitas, plebs, populus, turba, vis, and vulgus.
- 5. An abstract noun is the name of a quality, action, or other attribute; as, bonitas, goodness; gaudium, joy; festinatio, haste
- Rem. 2. A concrete, in distinction from an abstract noun, is one which denotes an object that has an actual and independent existence; as, Roma, homo, populus, ferrum.
- 6. A material noun is the name of a substance considered in the gross; as, lignum, wood; ferrum, iron; cibus, food.
- REM. 3. Proper, abstract, and material nouns become common, when employed to denote one or more of a class of objects. A verb in the infinitive model is often used as an abstract noun
 - 7. To nouns belong gender, number, and case.
- REM. 4. Adjectives and participles have likewise different genders, numbers, and cases, corresponding to those of nouns.

GENDER.

- § 27. 1. The gender of a noun is its distinction in regard to sex.
- 2. Nouns have three genders—the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.
 - 3. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.

Those nouns are naturally masculine or feminine, which are used to designate the sexes; as, vir, a man; mulier, a woman.

5. Those are grammatically masculine or femiline, which, though denoting objects that are neither male nor female, take adjectives of the form appropriated to nouns denoting the sexes.

Thus, dominus, a lord, is naturally masculine, because it denotes a male; but sermo, speech, is grammatically masculine, because, though not indicative of sex, it takes an adjective of that form which is appropriated to nouns denoting males.

- 6. The grammatical gender of Latin nouns depends either on their signification, or on their declension and termination. The following are the general rules of gender, in reference to signification. Many exceptions to them, on account of termination, occur: these will be specified under the several declensions.
- § 28. MASCULINES. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all male beings are masculine; as, *Homērus*, Homer; *păter*, a father; *consul*, a consul; *ĕquus*, a horse.

As proper names usually follow the gender of the general name under which they are comprehended; hence,

2. Names of rivers, winds, and months, are masculine, because fluvius, ventus, and mensis, are masculine; as, Tiběris, the Tiber; Aquilo, the north wind; Aprilis, April.

Exc. Styx and some names of rivers in a and e are feminine. §§ 62, and 41, 1.

- Names of mountains are sometimes masculine, because mons is masculine; as, Othrys, a mountain of Thessaly; but they usually follow the gender of their termination; as, the* Atlas, hac Ida, hoc Soracte.
- § 29. Feminines. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all female beings are feminine; as, *Helěna*, Helen; *māter*, a mother; *juvenca*, a heifer.
- Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, ships, islands, poems, and gems, are feminine; because terra, urbs, arbor, planta, nāvis, insūla, fabūla, and gemma, are feminine; as,

Egyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth; pirus, a pear-tree; nardus, spikenard; Centaurus, the ship Centaurus, Sāmos, the name of an island; Eunachus, the Enunch, a comedy of Terence; amethystus, an amethyst.

Exc. Names of countries and islands in um, i, and (plur.) a, $\bar{o}rum$, are neuter.—Names of towns in i, $\bar{o}rum$; four in o, $\bar{o}nis$, vix. Trusino, Hippo, Nario, and Sulmo, with Times, Travas, and Campus, are masculine. Names of towns in um or o, i, and (plur.) a, $\bar{o}rum$; those in e and ur of the third declension, indeclinable nouns in i and g, and some barbarous names, as Sulmid, Hispul and Gadhr are neuter.—Names of trees and plants in e of the third declension, $(\S$ 60), with baccur and $r\bar{o}bur$ are neuter. A few names in us, i, $(\S$ 50), with obstact, pinaster, Stigrax and $un\bar{e}do$ are masculine.—A few names of genus in us, i, ve also masculine.

^{*}To distinguish the gender of Latin nouns, grammarians write hic before the masouline, hac before the feminine, and hoc before the neuter.

§ 30. COMMON AND DOUBTFUL GENDER. Some words are either masculine or feminine. These, if they denote things animate, are said to be of the common gender; if things inanimate, of the doubtful gender.

Of the former are parens, a parent; bos, an ox or cow: of the latter, finis, an end

The following nouns are of the common gender:-

Adolescens, a youth. Aff inis, a relative by marriage. Ales, a bird. Antistes, a chief priest. Auctor, an author. Augur, an augur. Bos, an ox or cow. Cănis, a dog. Cīvis, a citizen. Comes, a companion. Conjux, a spouse. Consors, a consort. Conviva, a quest. Custos, a keeper. Dux, a leader.

Exsul, an exile. Grus, a crane. Hospes, a guest, a host. Hostis, an enemy. Index, an informer. Infans, an infant. Interpres, an interpreter. Jūdex, a judge. Juvěnis, a youth. Martyr, a martyr. Miles, a soldier. Municeps, a burgess. Mus, a mouse. Nēmo, nobody. Obses, a hostage. Patruelis, a cousin.

Palumbes, a wood-pigeon. Părens, a parent. Par, a mate. Præses, a president. Præsul, a chief priest. Princeps, a prince or princess. Serpens, a serpent. Sacerdos, a priest or priestess. Satelles, a life-guard. Sus, a swine. Testis, a witness. Vātes, a prophet. Verna, a slave. Vindex, an avenger.

The following hexameters contain nearly all the above nouns:-

Conjux, atque părens, princeps, pătruēlis, et infans, Affinis, vindex, jūdex, dux, miles, et hostis, Augur, et antistes, juvenis, conviva, săcerdos, Mūni-que-ceps, vātēs, adoléscens, cīvis, et auctor, Custōs, nēmo, cŏmes, testis, sus, bōs-que, cănis-que, Pro consorte tori par, præsul, verna, satelles, Mus-que obses, consors, interpres, et exaul, et hospes.

- § 31. 1. When nouns of the common gender denote males, they take a masculine adjective; when they denote females, a feminine.
- The following are either masculine or feminine in sense, but masculine only in grammatical construction:-

Artifex, an artist. Auspex, a soothsayer. Eques, a horseman.

Fur, a thief. Hēres, an heir.

Lătro, a robber. Liběri, children. Homo, a man or woman. Pedes, a footman.

To these may be added personal appellatives of the first declension; as, advena, a stranger; and some gentile nouns; as, Persa, a Persian.

1. The following, though masculine or feminine in sense, are feminine only in construction :-

Copiæ, troops. Custodiæ, guards. Excubiæ, sentinels.

Opěræ, laborers. Subole { offspring. Vigi æ, watchmen.

Some nouns, signifying persons, are neuter, both in their termination and construction; as,

Acroāma, a buffoon.

Auxilia, auxiliaries.

Mancipium, a slave.

Scortum, Prostibūlum, a prostitute.

- 3. (a.) In some personal appellatives masculines and feminines are distinguished by different terminations affixed to the same root. The masculines end in us, er, o, tor, etc.; the feminines in a or trix, as, còquus, còqua; magister, magistra; lēno, lēna; inventor, inventrix; tibicen, tibicīna; āvus, avia; rex, regina; poēta, poētria.
- (b.) So also in some names of animals; as, ĕyaus, ĕyau; gallus gallua; leo, lea and leæna. Sometimes the words are wholly different; as, taurus, vacca.
- 4. Some names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine without regard to difference of sex; as, anguis, serpens, dāma, talpa, tiqris, colūber and colūbra, etc.
- § 33. EPICENES. Names of animals which include both sexes, but admit of an adjective of one gender only, are called *epicene*. These commonly follow the gender of their terminations.

Thus, passer, a sparrow, corvus, a raven, are masculine; aquila, an eagle, vulpes, a fox, are feminine; though each of them is used to denote both sexes.

Note. This class includes the names of animals, in which the distinction of sex is seldom attended to. When it is necessary to mark the sex, mas or femina is usually aided.

- § 34. NEUTERS. Nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine, are said to be of the neuter gender; such are,
 - 1. All indeclinable nouns; as, fas, něfas, nihil, gummi, pondo.
- 2. Names of letters; as, o longum, long o. But these are sometimes feminine, litëra being understood.
- 3. Words used merely as such, without reference to their meaning: as, pater est dissyllabin; pater is dissyllabic.
- 4. All infinitives, imperatives, clauses of sentences, adverbs, and other particles, used substantively; as scire tuum, your knowledge; ultimum vale, the last farewell; hoc diu, this (word) diu.

REMARK. 1. Words derived from the Greek retain the gender which the have in that language.

REM. 2. Some nouns have different genders in the singular and plural, and are called heterogeneous nouns. See § 92.

NUMBER.

- § 35. 1. (a.) Number, in nouns, is the form by which they denote whether they represent one object or more than one.
- (b.) Latin nouns have two numbers,—the singular and the plurat,—which are distinguished by their terminations. The singular number denotes one object; the plural, more than one.

PERSON.

The person of a noun or pronoun is the character sustained by the object which it represents, as being the speaker, the per son addressed, or the person or thing spoken of.

Hence there are three persons. The speaker is of the first person, the person addressed is of the second person, and the person or thing spoken of is of the third person.

CASES.

Many of the relations of objects, which, in English, are denoted by prepositions, are, in Latin, expressed by a change of termination.

Cases are those terminations of nouns, which denote their relations to other words. Latin nouns have six cases; viz. Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative, and Ablative.

REMARK. Though there are six cases in each number, no noun has in each number so many different terminations.

§ 37. 1. The nominative denotes the relation of a subject to a

finite verb; as, ego scribo, I write. Caius dicit, Caius says.

- 2. The genitive denotes origin, possession, and many other relations, which, in English, are expressed by the preposition of or by the possessive case; as, Vita Casaris, the life of Casar, or Casar's life.
- 3. The dative denotes that to or for which any thing is, or is done; as, Ille mihi librum dedit, He gave the book to me.

4. The accusative is either the object of an active verb, or of cer-

tain prepositions, or the subject of an infinitive.

5. The vocative is the form appropriated to the name of any object which is addressed.

6. The ablative denotes privation, and many other relations, especially those expressed in English by the prepositions with, from, in, or by.

REMARK. The nominative and vocative are sometimes called casus rect, i. e. the uninflected cases; and the others, casus oblique; i. e. the oblique or inflected cases.

DECLENSIONS.

§ 38. The regular forming of the several cases in both numbers, by annexing the appropriate terminations to the root, is called declension.

The Latin language has five declensions or modes of declining nouns, distinguished by the termination of the genitive singular, which, in the first declension, ends in a, in the second in i, in the third in is, in the fourth in ūs, and in the fifth in ei

The following table exhibits a comparative view of the termina tions or rese-endings of the five declensions.

TERMINATIONS.

			Singular.		
	I.	П.	III.	IV.	V
		M. N.	M. N.	M. N.	Ì
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc.	ă, æ, æ, ăm	ŭs, ĕr, ŭm, ī, ō, ŭm,	ŏr, etc. ĕ, etc. ĭs, ī, ĕm,(ĭm), ĕ, etc.	ŭs, ū, ūs, ūi, ū, ŭm, ū, ŭs, ū,	ēs, eï, eï, ĕm,
Voc. Abl.	ă, ā.	ě, ěr, ŭm, ō.	ŏr, etc. ĕ, etc. ĕ, (ī.)	ŭs, ü, ū.	ēs, ē.

Plural.

Nom-	æ,	ī,	ă,	ēs, ă, (iă),	ūs,	uă,	ēs,
Gen.	ārŭm,	ōrŭm,		ŭm, (iŭm),		ŭm,	erum,
Dat.	īs,	· īs,		ĭbŭs,	ĭbŭs,	(ŭbŭs),	ēbŭs,
Acc	ās,	ōs,	ă,	ēs, ă, (iă),	ūs,	uă,	ēs,
Voc	æ,	ī,	ă,	ēs, ă, (iă),	ūs,	uă,	ēs,
Abl.	īs.	19.		ĭbús."	ĭbŭs,	(ŭbŭs).	ēbŭs.

Remarks.

- § 40. 1. The terminations of the nominative, in the third declension, are very numerous. See §§ 55, 58, 62, 66.
- 2. The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, always ends in n.
- 3. The vocative singular is like the nominative in all Latin nouns, except those in us of the second declension.
 - 4. The nominative and vocative plural always end alike.
 - 5. The genitive plural always ends in um.
- 6. The dative and ablative plural always end alike;—in the 1st and 2d declensions, in is; in the 3d, 4th, and 5th, in bus.
- 7. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, always ends
- 8. Nouns of the neuter gender have the accusative and vocative like the nominative, in both numbers; and these cases, in the plural, always end in a.
- 9. The 1st and 5th declensions contain no nouns of the neuter gender, and the 4th and 5th contain no proper names.
- 10. Every inflected word consists of two parts—a root, and a termination. The root or crude form, is the part which is not changed by inflection. The termination is the part annexed to the root. The root of a declined word may be found by removing the termination of any of its oblique cases. The case commonly selected for this purpose is the genitive singular.
- 11. The preceding table exhibits terminations only. In the fifth declension, the softhe final syllable, hough unchanged, is considered as belonging to the termination.

FIRST DECLENSION.

§ 41. Nouns of the first declension end in \check{a} , \bar{e} , $\check{a}s$, $\check{e}s$. Those in a and e are feminine; those in as and es are masculine.

Latin nouns of the first declension end only in a. They are thus declined:-

	Sin	ngular.		Plural.	
Nom.	mū'-să,	a muse;		mu'-sæ,	muses;
Gen.	mu'-sæ,	of a muse;	Gen.	mu-sā'-rŭm,	of muses,
Dat.	mu'-sæ,	to a muse:	Dat.	mu'-sīs,	to muses
Acc.	mu'-săm,	a muse;	Acc.	mu'-sās,	$muses$ \cdot
Voc.	mu'-să,	O muse;	Voc.	mu'-sæ,	O muses,
Abl.	mu'-sā.	with a muse.	Abl.	mu'-sis,	with muses.

In like manner decline

Au'-la, a hall.	Lit'-ĕ-ra, a letter.	Sa-git'-ta, an arrow
Cu'-ra, care.	Lus-cin'-i-a, a nightingale.	Stel'-la, a star.
Ga'-le-a, a helmet.	Mach'-i-na, a machine.	Tŏ'-ga, a gown.
In'-sŭ-la, an island.	Pen'-na, a feather, a quill.	Vi'-a, a way.

Note. As the Latin language has no article, appellative nouns may be redered either with or without the English articles a, an, or the, according to their sonnection.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 4.2. 1. Names proper and appellative of men, as, Sulla, Chnaa; poèta, line; nota, a sailor; and names of rivers, though ending in a, are masculine: § 28, 1 and 2. But the following names of rivers have been used as feminine: viz. Abbila, Allia, Druentia, Garumva, Himéra, Matrôna, Mosella, Trebia. Lêthe is always feminine.

Ossa and Æta, names of mountains, are masculine or feminine.

 Hadria, the Adriatic sea, dāma in Virgil and Statius, and talpa in Virgil, are masculine.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 43. Genitive singular. 1. The poets sometimes formed the genitive singular in āi; as, aula, gen. aulāi.

2. Familia, after păter, māter, filius, or filia, usually forms its genitive in as; as, mater-familias, the mistress of a family; gen. matrisfamilias; nom. plur. matres-familias or familiarum. Some other

words anciently formed their genitive in the same manner.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural of patronymics in es, of several compounds in cola and gena, and of some names of nations, is sometimes, especially in poetry, formed in um instead of arum; as, Eneadum, Calicolum, terrigenum, Lapithum. So amphorum, drachmum, for amphorum, drachmum, for amphorum, drachmum.

Dative and Ablative plural. The following nouns have sometimes abus instead of is, in the dative and ablative plural, especially when it is necessary to distinguish them from the same cases of masculines in us of the second declension having the same root; as, filius et filia-

hus, to sons and darghters.

§ 44-46

Dea, a goddess. Filia, a daughter. Equa, a mare. Mula, a she mule.

The use of a similar termination in anima, asina, liberta, nāta, conserva, and some other words, rests on inferior anthority.

GREEK NOUNS.

§ 44. Nouns of the first declension in \bar{e} , $\bar{a}s$, and $\bar{e}s$, and some also in \bar{a} , are Greek. Greek nouns in \bar{a} are declined like musa, except that they sometimes have $\bar{a}n$ in the accusative singular; as, Ossa; acc. Ossam, or Ossan.

Greek nouns in e, as, and es, are thus declined in the singular number:-

N. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē,	N. Æ-nē'-ās,	N. An-chī'-sēs,
G. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pēs,	G. Æ-nē'-æ,	G. An-chī'-sæ,
D. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pæ,	D. Æ-nē'-æ,	D. An-chī'-sæ,
Ac. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pēn,	Ac. Æ-nē'-ăm or ān,	Ac. An-chī'-sēn,
V. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē,	V. Æ-nē'-ā,	V. An-chī'-sē or ā
Ab. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē.	Ab. Æ-nē'-ā.	Ab. An-chī'-sā or ē

§ 45. In like manner decline

THE MILE IMMEDIAL MOORING	
Al'-o-e, aloes.	Ti-ā'-ras, a turban.
E-pit'-ŏ-me, an abridgment.	Co-mē'-tes, a comet.
This'-be.	Dv-nas'-tes, a ruler.
Bo'-re-as, the north wind.	Pri-am'-I-des, a son of Priam.
Mi'-das.	Py-rī'-tes, a kind of stone.

- Most proper names in es, except patronymics, follow the third declension; but in the accusative they often have both em and en, and in the vocative both es and e. See § 80, tv, and 81.
- Greek nouns of the first declension, which admit of a plural, are declined in that number like the plural of musa.
- 2. The Latins frequently change the terminations of Greek nouns in ēs and ē into ā; as, Atridas, Atrida, a son of Atreus; Perses, Persa, a Persian; geomètres, geomètra, a geometrician; Circe, Circa; epitôme, epitôma; grammatice, grammat; rhetorice, rhetorica, oratory.—So also târas, tiāra.

SECOND DECLENSION.

3 46. Nouns of the second declension end in er, r, us, um, os, on. Those ending in um and on are neuter; the rest are masculine.

Nouns in er, us, and um, are thus declined :-

SINGULAR.

	A lord.	A son-in-law.	A field.	A kingdom
N.	dŏm'-ĭ-nŭs,	gĕ'-nĕr,	ă'-gĕr,	reg'-nŭm,
	dom'-I-nī,	gen'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-nī,
D.	dom'-ĭ-nō,	gen'-ĕ-rŏ,	a'-grō,	reg'-nō,
Ac.	dom'-i-num,	gen'-ĕ-rum,	a'-grum,	reg'-nŭm,
V.	dom'-i-ně,	ge'-nĕr,	a'-gĕr,	reg'-nŭm,
Ab	dom'-i-nō.	gen'-ĕrō.	a'-grō.	reg'-nö.

PLURAL.

N	. dom'-ĭ-nī,	ger'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-nă,
G	dom-i-no'-rum,	gen-e-rō'-rum,	a-gro'-rum,	reg'-nō'-rŭm
D	. dom'-i-nis,	gen'-ĕ-rīs,	a'-gris,	reg'-nīs,
A	c. dom'-ĭ-nŏs,	gen'-ĕ-rōs ₁	a'-gros,	reg'-nă,
V	. dom'-ĭ-nī,	gen'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-nă,
A	b. dom'-i-nis.	gen'-ĕ-rīs.	a'-gris.	reg'-nīs.
		· ·	-	•

Like dominus decline

An'-I-mus, the mind. Fō'-cus, a hearth. Nu'-mē-rus, a number. Clip'-e-us, a shield. Gla'-di-us, a sword. Cor'-vus, a raven. Lū'-cus, a grove. Trō'-chus, a trundling-hoop.

Nors. Nouns in us of the second declension are the only Latin nouns, whose nominative and vocative singular differ in form. See \S 40, R. 3.

§ 47. A few nouns in er, like gener, add the terminations to the nominative singular, as a root. They are the compounds of gero and fero; as, armayer, eri, an armor-bearer; Lucifer, eri, the morning star; and the following:—

A-dul'-ter, an adulterer. Li'-ber, Bacchus. Pu'-er, a bog. Cel'-tl-bēr, a Celliberian. Lib'-ē-ri, (plur.), children. Sŏ'-cer, a father-in-law. I'-ber, a Spaniard. Pros'-bŷ-ter, an elder. Vos'-per, the evening.

Mul'-ct-ber, Vulcan, sometimes has this form.

§ 48. 1. All other nouns in er reject the e in adding the terminations, (§ 322, 4), and are declined like ager; thus,

A'-per, a wild boar.

A'-ber, a book.

Al-ex-m'-der.

Aus'-ter, the south wind.

Ma-gis'-ter, a master.

Fa'-ber, a workman.

On'-â-ger, a wild ass.

Teu'-cer.

Vir, a man, with its compounds, and the patrial Trēvir, (the only nouns in ir,) are declined like gener.

Like regnum decline

An'-trum, a cave. Ex-em'-plum, an example. Præ-sid'-i-um, a defence
A'-tri-um, a hall. Ne-go'-ti-um,* a business.
Bel'-lum, war. N'-trum, natron. Scep'-trum, a sceptre.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 49. 1. The following nouns in us and os are feminine:—

Abyssus, a bottomless pit.

Alvius, the belly.

Antidotus, an antidote.

Arctos(us), the Northern
Bear.

Carbäsus, a sail.

Dialectos, a dialect.
Diphthongus, a diphthong.
Domus, a house, home.
Hümus, a desert.
Hümus, the pround.
Vannus, a corn-fan.

Greek nouns in ödus (
 if 380c), and mētros, are likewise feminine; as, synódus, an assembly; diamètros, a diameter.

§ 50. Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, etc. are feminine. See \$ 29, 2

Yet the following names of plants are masculine:-

Acanthus, bear's-foot. Amarantus, amaranth. Asparagus, asparagus. Calamus, a reed. Carduns, a thistle. Dūmus, a bramble.

Ebŭlus, an elder. Helleborus, hellebore. Intŭbus, endive. Juneus, a bulrush. Raphănus, a radish. Rhamnos, buck-thorn. Rŭbus, a blackberry-bush. Tribulus, a caltrops.

And sometimes Amarácus, marjoram. Cytisus, snail-clover.

So also,

Oleaster and pinaster, names of trees, are also masculine.

The following names of gems are also masculine:-

Chrysoprasus, chrysoprase. Beryllus, a beryl.

Pyropus, gold-bronze. Carbunculus, a carbuncle. Opalus, opal.

Chrysolithus, chrysolite, and smaragdus, are emerald, are doubtful. Names of females in um are feminine: § 29, 1; as, mea Glycerium, Ter. Names of trees and plants in um are generally neuter; as, apium, parsley;

aconitum, wolf's bane.

Cunopus, Pontus, Hellespontus, Isthmus, and all plural names in i of countries and towns are masculine. Abydus(os) is doubtful.

Names of countries and towns ending in um, or, if plural, in a, are neuter;

as, Ilium or Ilion; Ecbătăna, orum.

\$ 51. The following are doubtful, but more frequently masculine:-

Grossus, an unripe fig. Balanus, a date. Barbitos, a lute. Pampinus, a vine-leaf.

Phasēlus, a light vessel.

Atômus, an atom, and côlus, a distaff, are doubtful, but more frequently femitine.

Pelägus, the sea, and virus, poison, are neuter.

Vulgus, the common people, is neuter, and rarely masculine.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

Genitive singular. When the genitive singular ends in ii, re poets frequently contract it into i; as, ingeni, for ingenii.

Vocative singular. The vocative of nouns in us is sometimes like the nominative, especially in poetry; as, fluvius, Latinus, in Virgil. So, audi tu, populus Albānus. Liv.

Proper names in ĭus omit e in the vocative; as, Horatius, Horāti; Virgilius, Virgili.

Filius, a son, and genius, a guardian angel, make also fili and geni. Other aouns in ius, including patrials and possessives derived from proper names, form their vocative regularly in e; as, Delius, Delie; Tirynthius, Tirynthie; Latertius, Laertie.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural of some nouns of the second declension, especially of those which denote money, weight and measure, is commonly formed in um, instead of orum: § 322, 4.

Such are particularly nummum, sestertium, denarium, medimnum, jugërum, modium, talentum. The same form occurs in other words, especially in poetry; as, deum, liberum, Danaum; etc., and sometimes om is found instead of um. as, A:him. Virg. Cf. § 322, 8.

Deus, a god, is thus declined:-

Singular.	Plural.		
N. de'-us,	N. di'-i, di, or de'-i,		
G. de'-i,	G. de-ō'-rum,		
D. de'-o,	D di'-is, dis, or de'-is,		
Ac. de'-um,	Ac. de os,		
V. de'-us,	V. di'-i, dī, or de'-i,		
Ab. de'-o.	Ah di'-is dis or de'-is		

 $J\bar{e}sus$, or $I\bar{e}sus$, the name of the Savior, has um in the accusative, and u in all the z-her oblique cases.

GREEK NOUNS.

§ 54. 1. Os and on, in the second declension, are Greek terminations, and are commonly changed, in Latin, into us and um; but sometimes both forms are in use; as, Alphēos, and Alpheus; Ilion and Ilium. Greek names in ros after a consonant commonly change ros into er; as, Alexandros, Alexandre; Teucros, Teucer. In a few words ros is changed to rus; as, Codrus, hydrus, and once in Virgil, Teucrus.

Greek nouns are thus declined in the singular number :-

	Singul	ar.	Barbiton, a lyre
N.	Dē'-lŏs,	Andrŏ'-ge-ōs,	N. bar'-bi-ton,
G.	De'-lī,	An-dro'-ge-ō, or ī,	G. bar'-bi-ti,
D.	De'-lō,	An-dro'-ge-ō,	D. bar'-bi-tō,
Ac.	De'-lon or um,	An-dro'-ge-ō, or ōn,	Ac. bar'-bi-ton,
V.	De'-lě,	An-dro'-ge-ōs,	V. bar'-bi-ton,
Ab.	De'-lō.	An-dro'-ge-ō.	Ab. bar'-bi-tō.

 The plurals of Greek nouns in os and on are declined like those of dominus and regnum; but the nominative plural of nouns in os sometimes ends in a, as, canephora.

In early writers some nouns in os have a genitive in ū (ov); as, Menandrū.

4. A genitive plural in on, instead of orum, occurs in the titles of books and

in some names of places; as, Georgicon; Philenon ara. Sall.

5. Greck proper names in eas (see § 9, R. 8), are declined like dominus, except that the vocative ends in ea; but sometimes in the genitive, dative, and acceptative also, they retain the Greek form, viz. gen. rés, dat. tê (contracted zī), acc. êā or cā, and are of the third declension. See § 86, and 306, (1.) So in Lucretius the neuter peldgus (Greek πɨπλρεκ, ze) has an accusative plural peldge for pelagea after the third declension. § 83, 1.—See also respecting a genitive in i of some proper nouns in es, § 73, km.—Panthū occurs in Virgil, A. 2, 822, as the vocative of Panthūs. Cf. § 81.

THIRD DECLENSION. .

§ 555. The number of final letters, in this declension, is twelve. Five are vowels—a, e, i, o, y; and seven are consonants— c, l, n, τ, s, t, x . The number of its final syllables exceeds fifty.

REM. The following terminations belong exclusively to Greek nouns; viz. $ma \ i \ y$, $\tilde{a}n$, in, $\tilde{o}n$, $\tilde{y}n$, $\tilde{e}r$, $\tilde{y}r$, ys, eus, yx, inx, ynx, and plurals in e.

Mode of declining Nouns of the Third Deciension.

To decline a word properly, in this declension, it is necessary to know its gender, its nominative singular, and ore of its oblique cases; since the root of the cases is not always found entire and unchanged in the nominative. The case usually selected for this purpose is the genitive singular. The formation of the accusative singular, and of the nominative, accusative, and vocative glural, depends upon the gender: if it is masculine or feminine, these cases have one form; if aeuter, another.

§ 56. The student should first fix well in his memory the terminations of one of these forms. He should next learn the nominative and gentitive singular of the wo. I which is to be declined. If is be removed from the gentitive, the remarkler will slyway: the root of the oblique cases, and by annexing their terminations to this root, the woll declined; thus, rupes, gentitive (found in the dictionary) rupis, root rup, date rupis, so ars, gen. aris, good ard, att. ari, etc.; opus, gen. operis, root oper, dat. operi, to.

RULES FOR FORMING THE NOMINATIVE SINGULAR OF TEAL THIRD DECLESSION FROM THE ROOT.

I. Roots ending in c, g; b, m, p; u, t, d, and some in r, add s to form the nominative; as, trabis, trabs; hiems; gruis, grus.

REMARK 1. T, d and r before s are dropped; as, nepótis, nepos; laudis, laus; floris, flos. So bovis, bos, drops v.

REM. 2. C and g before s form x; as, vocis, vox; regis, rex. So vs forms x in nivis, nix. Cf. §§ 3, 2, and 171, 1.

REM. 3. Short i in the root before c,b,p,t, is commonly changed to δ ; as, pollicis, pollicis, calibis, calebis, principis, princeps; comitis, comes. So \tilde{n} is changed to δ in ancepis, auceps.

Rem. 4. Short é or ő before r in neuters is changed to ŭ; as, genëris, genŭs; tempôris, tempūs.

Rem. 5. Short ē before r is changed to t in the masculines cinëris, cucumëris, cucumëris, pulvëris, pulvës; vomëris, vomis.

Rem. 6. A few and those mostly monosyllabic roots of masculines and feminies, not increasing in the genitive, add es or is, instead of s alone; as, genrūjis, nom. rūjis; gen. auris, nom. auris.

REM. 7. A few neuters add é to the root to form the nominative; as, rétia, rété; măris, măré.

II. To roots ending in l and n, to some in r and s, and to those of most neuters in l, no addition is made in forming the nominative; as animalis, animal; canonis, canon; honoris, honor; assis, as.

REMARK 1. Final on and in in the roots of masculines and feminines, become o in the nominative; as, sermonis, sermo; arundinis, arundo.

REM. 2. Final in in the roots of neuters becomes \(\ilde{e}n \) in the nominative; as, fluminis, flum\(\ilde{e}n \). So also in the masculines, oscen, pecten, tibicen and tubicen. REM. 3. Tr and br at the end of a root, take \(\ilde{e} \) between them in the nomina-

tive; as, patris, pāter; imbris, imber. Cf. §§ 108, 48, and 106.

REM. 4. Short ở is changed to ŭ in ebőris, ēbūr; femõris, fēmūr; jecðris, jē-

cur; and roboris, robor.

REM. 5. In the roots of neuters at drops t, and it becomes ut in the nominative; as, postudis, postudis, postudis, acquitis, caput.

REM. 6. Roots of this class ending in repeated consonants drop one of them in the mominative; as, fellis, fel; farris, far; assis, as; bessis, bes.

Ab. ser-mō'-ne.

V. ser'-mo,

Ac. ser-mo'-nem, ser-mo'-nes,

§ 3.7	7.	THIRD DE	CLEN	SION.	3)
	The following a	re the two forms of	of term		leclension:-	
	Sing	ular.		. Plural		
	Masc. and F		7.	fasc. and Fem.	Neut.	
	N. *	*	1 N.		ă, (iă),	
	G. ĭs,	ís,		ŭm, (iŭm),		
		,	\ a.	ĭbŭs,	ĭbŭs,	
		ī,	1		ă, (iă),	
	Ac. ĕm, (ĭn	1), *	V.		ă, (iă), ă, (iă),	
				. ĭbŭs.	ibus.	
	Ab. \check{e} , (i) .	ĕ, (ī).				
		ls for the nominativ				
ş	57. The fo	llowing are exa nsion, déclined	mples	of the most of	ommon forms	0
noul						
	Hŏnor, hono		1	Turris, a to		
S	ingular.	Plural.		ngular.		
N.	ho'-nor,	ho-nō'os,	N.	tur'-ris,	tur'-res,	
G.	ho-nō'-ris,	ho-nō'-rum,			tur'-ri-um,	
D.	ho-nō'-ris, ho-nō'-ri,	ho-nor'-ĭ-bus,		tur'-ri,	tur'-rĭ-bus,	
Ac.	ho-nō'-rem,	ho-nō'-res,		tur'-rim, rem		
V.	ho'-nor,	ho-nö'-res,	V.	tur'-ris,	tur'-res,	
Ab.	ho-nō'-rem, ho'-nor, ho-nō'-re.	ho-nor'-ĭ-bus.	Ab.	tur'-ri, or re.	tur'-rĭ-bus.	
	Rūpes, a ro	ck; fem.		Nox, nigh	t; fem.	
S	ingular.	Plural.	Si	ingular.	Plural.	
N.	ru'-pes,	ru'-pes,	N.	nox,	noc'-tes.	
G.	ru'-pis,	ru'-pi-um,		noc'-tis,	noc'-ti-um,*	
D.	ru'-pi,	ru'-pĭ-bus,		noc'-ti,	noc'-ti-bus,	
Ac.	ru'-pem,	ru'-pes,		noc'-tem,	noc'-tes,	
	ru'-pes,	ru'-pes,	V.	nox,	noc'-tes,	
	ru'-pe.	ru'-pi-bus.		noc'-te.	noc'-tĭ-bus.	
110.	•	•	i			
	Ars, art;	fem.		Iiles, a soldie		
S	ingular.	Plural.	S	ingular.	Plural.	
N.	ars,	ar'-tes,	N.	mi'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,	
G.	ar'-tis,	ar'-ti-um,*		mil'-ĭ-tis,	mil'-ĭ-tum,	
D.	ar'-ti,	ar'-ti-bus,	D.	mil'-ĭ-ti,	mi-lit'-ĭ-bus,	
Ac.	ar'-tem,	ar'-tes,	Ac.	mil'-ĭ-tem,	mil'-ĭ-tes,	
V.	ars,	ar'-tes,	V.	mi'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,	
Ab.	ar'-te.	ar'-tĭ-bus.	Ab.	mil'-ĭ-te.	mi-lit' ĭ-bus.	
	Sermo, speed	ch; mase.	ı	Păter, a fat	her; masc.	
S	ingular.	Plural.	S	ingular.	Plural.	
	ser'-mo,	ser-mō'-nes,		pa'-ter,	pa'-tres,	
		ser-mo'-num,		pa'-tris,	pa'-trum,	
D.		ser-mon'-i-bus,		pa'-tri,	pat'ri-bus,	
		ser-mon -r-bus,		pa-tri,	par irous,	

ser-mon'-i-bus. Ab. pa'-tre. * Pronounced ar'-she-um, noc'-she-um. See § 12.

Ac. pa'-trem,

V. pa'-ter,

pa'-tres,

pa'-tres,

pat'-ri-bus.

ser-mō'-nes,

Sĕdile, a seat; neut.

	,
ingular.	Plural.
se-dī'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
se-dī'-lis,	se-dil'-i-um,
se-dī'-li,	se-dil'-i-bus,
se-dī'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
se-dī'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
se-dī´-li.	se-dil'-i-bus.
	se-dī'-le, se-dī'-lis, se-dī'-li, se-dī'-le, se-dī'-le,

Carmen, a verse; neut.

	Ctermon,	
S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
G.	car'-mi-nis,	car'-mĭ-num,
D.	car'-mi-ni,	car-min'-i-bus,
Ac.	car'-men, ·	car'-mi-na,
V.	car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
Ab.	car'-mi-ne.	car-min'-i-bus.

Iter, a journey: neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. ĭ'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
G. i-tin'-ĕ-ris,	i-tin'-ĕ-rum,
D. i-tin'-ĕ-ri,	it-i-ner'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. i'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
V. i'-ter,	i-tin´-ĕ-ra,
4b. i-tin'-ĕ-re.	it-i-ner'-i-bus.

Lăpis, a stone; masc.

	napis, a mone, maso.					
S	ingular.	Plural.				
N.	la'-pis,	lap'-ĭ-des,				
G.	lap'-ĭ-dis,	lap'-i-dum,				
D.	lap'-ĭ-di,	la-pid'-i-bus,				
Ac.	lap'-i-dem,	lap'-i-des,				
	la'-pis,	lap'-ĭ-des,				
.4t	!ap'-i-de.	la-pid'ĭ-bus.				

Virgo, a virgin fem.

Si	ingular.	Plural.	
N.	vir'-go,	vir'-gĭ-nes,	
G.	vir'-gĭ-nis,	vir'-gĭ-num,	
D.	vir'-gi-ni,	vir-gin'-i-bus,	
Ac.	vir'-gi-nem,	vir'-gi-nes,	
V.	vir'-go,	vir'-gi-nes,	
Ab.	vir'-gi-ne.	vir-gin'-ĭ-bus.	

Animal, an animal; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ăn'-ĭ-mal,	an-i-ma´-li-a,
G.	an-i-mā'-lis,	an-i-ma'-li-um,
D.	an-i-mā'-li,	an-i-mal'-ĭ-bus
Ac.	an'-ĭ-mal,	an-i-ma'-li-a,
V.	an'-ĭ-mal,	an-i-ma'-li-a,
AL	an-i-mā'-li	an-i-mal'-ĭ-hua

Opus, work; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ŏ'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
G.	op'-ĕ-ris,	op'ě-rum,
D.	op'-ĕ-ri,	o-per'-ĭ-bus,
	o'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
	o'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
Ab.	op'-ĕ-re.	o-per'-i-bus.

Căput, a head; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ca'-put,	cap'-ĭ-ta,
G.	cap'-ĭ-tis,	cap'-i-tum,
D.	cap'-i-ti,	ca-pit'-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	ca'-put,	cap'-i-ta
V.	ca'-put,	cap'-ĭ-ta,
Ab.	cap'-i-te.	ca-pit'-ĭ-bus.

Poëma, a poem; neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
G. po-em'-ă-tis,	po-em'-ă-tum,
D. po-em'-a-ti,	po-e-mat'-i-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis,
Ac. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
V. po-ē'-1.1a,	po-em'-ă-ta,
Ab. po-em' i-te.	po-e-mat'-i-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis.

RULES FOR THE GENDER OF NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

§ 58. Nouns whose gender is determined by their signification, according to the general rules, § 28—34, are not included in the following rules and exceptions.

MASCULINES.

Nouns ending in o, er, or, es increasing in the genitive, os, and n, are masculine; ea,

sermo, speech; dòlor, pain; flos, a flower; carcer, a prison; pes, a foot; cănon, a rule.

Exceptions in O.

§ 59. 1. Abstract and collective nouns in io are feminine; as, ratio, reason; legio, a legion.

REM. 1. But numerals in io; as, binio, trinio, etc., except unio, unity, are masculine.

2. Nouns in do and go, of more than two syllables, are feminine; as, arundo, a reed; imāgo, an image. So also grando, hail. But comēdo, a glutton; unēdo, the arbute tree; and harpāgo, a grapplinghook, are masculine.

Rem. 2. Margo, the brink of a river, is doubtful. Cupido, desire, is often masculine in poetry, but in prose is always feminine.

 Căro, flesh, and Greek nouns in o, are feminine; as, ēcho, an echo. Būbo, the owl, is once feminine, Virg. A. 4, 462.

Exceptions in ER.

§ 60. 1. Laver, a water plant, and tiber, the tuber tree, are feminine, but when the latter denotes the fruit, it is masculine. Linter, a boat, is feminine, and once, in Tibullus, masculine. Steer, skirret, is neuter in the singular, but masculine in the plural.

2. The following, in er, are neuter:-

Acer, a maple-tree. Cadaver, a dead body. Cicer, a vetch. Iter, a journey. Läser, assafætida. Papāver, a poppy. Pīper, pepper. Sīler, an osier. Spinther, a clasp. Sūber, a cork-tree. Tüber, a swelling. Uber, a teat. Ver, the spring. Verber, a scourge. Zingiber, ginger.

Těges, a mat.

Exceptions in OR.

\$ 61. Arbor, a tree, is feminine: ador, spelt; aquor, the sea; marmor, earlie; and cor, the heart, are neuter.

Exceptions in ES increasing in the genitive.

1. The following are feminine:-

Compos, a fetter. Quies, and Requies, rest.
Merces, a reward. Inquies, restlessness.

Merces, a reward. Inquies, restlessness. Seges, growing corn.

Ales, a bird; comes, a companion; hospes, a guest; interpres, an interpreter; miles, a soldier; obses a hostage; presses, a president; and satelles, a life-guard, are common, § 30. Es, brass, is neuter.

Exceptions in OS.

3. Arbos, a tree; cos, a whetstone; dos, a dowry; cos, the morning; and rarely nāpos, a grandchild, are feminine: sacerdos, custos, and bos are common, § 30: ôs, the mouth, and ôs, a bone, are neuter; as are also the Greek words Épos, q-ic poetry; and mēlos, melody.

Exceptions in N.

4. Nouns in men with four in n are neuter—gluten, glue; inguen, the groin pollen, fine flour; and unguen, ointment.

5. Four nouns in on are feminine—aedon, a nightingale; halcyon, a king-fisher; icon, am image; and sindon, muslin.

FEMININES.

§ 62. Nouns ending in as, es not increasing in the genitive, is, ys, aus, s preceded by a consonant, and x, are feminine; as,

atus, age; nūbes, a cloud; avis, a bird; chlamys, a cloak; laus, praise; trabs, a beam; pax, peace.

Exceptions in AS.

1. Mas, a male, vas, a surety, and as, a piece of money, or any unit divisible into twelve parts, are masculine. Greek nouns in as, antis, are also mascriline; as, addimas, adamant. So also Mēlas, the name of a river, § 28, 2. Arcas and Nomas are common.—2. Vas, a vessel, the indeclinable nouns, fas and affins, and Greek nouns in as, âtis, are neuter; as, artocreas, a meat-pie; bucèras, a species of herb.

Exceptions in ES not increasing in the genitive.

 Acinàces, a scimitar, and côles or côlis, a stalk, are masculine. Antistes, palumbes, vôtes, and vepres, are masculine or feminine. Cacoethes, hippomânes, nepenthes, and panáces, Greek words, are neuter.

Exceptions in IS.

§ 63. 1. Latin nouns in nis are masculine or doubtful.

(1.) Masc. Crinis, hair; ignis, fire; pānis, bread; mānes, (plur.), departed spirits.—(2.) Masc. or fem. Amnis, a river; cinis, ashes; finis, an end; clūnis, the haunch; cinis, a dog; finis, a rope. The plurals, cinēres, the ashes of the dead, and fines, boundaries, are always masculine.

The following are common or doubtful:—

Anguis, a snake.
Callis, a path.
Canālis, a conduit pipe.
Contubernālis, a comrade.

Corbis, a basket. Pollis, fine flour. Pulvis, dust. Scröbis, a ditch. Tigris, a tiger. Torquis, a chain.

3. The following are masculine:-

Axis, an axle.
Aquālis, a water-pct.
Cassis, a net.
Caulis, or \(\) a stalk.

Cenchris, a serpent.
Collis, a hill.
Cucumis, a cucumber.
Ensis, a sword.
Fascis, a bundle.

Follis, a pair of bellows. Fustis, a club. Glis, a dormouse. Lăpis, a stone. Lemŭres, pl., spectres.

Mensis, a month. Mugilis, a mullet. Orbis, a circle. Piscis, a fish. Postis, a post. Quiris, a Roman. Samnis, a Samnite.

Sanguis, blood. Sēmis, or Semissis, Bessis, compounds Centussis, of as. Decussis, Tressis,

Sentis, a brier. Sodālis, a companion. Torris, a firebrand. Unguis, a nail. Vectis, a lever. Vermis, a worm. Vomis, a ploughshare.

 Names of male beings, rivers, and months in is are masculine; as, Dis, Pluto; Anūbis, an Egyptian deity; Tigris, the river Tigris; Aprīlis, April. See § 28.

Exceptions in YS.

Names of rivers and mountains in ys are masculine; as, Halys, Othrys. See § 28, 2 and 3

Exceptions in S preceded by a consonant.

1. Dens, a tooth; fons, a fountain; mons, a mountain; and pons, a bridge, are masculine. So also are auceps, a bird-catcher; chalybs, steel; cliens, a client; ellops, a kind of fish; épops, a hoopoe; gryps, a griffin; hydrops, the dropsy; mérops, a kind of bird. Rådens, a rope, is masculine and very rarely feminine.

The following nouns also are masculine, viz. (a.) these which are properly adjectives-confluens and torrens, scil. amnis; occidens and oriens, scil. sol; (b.) compounds of dens—tridens, a trident, and bidens, a two-pronged mattock; but bidens, a sheep, is feminine; (c.) the parts of as ending in ns; as, sextans, quadrans, triens, dodrans, and dextans.

The following are common or doubtful:—

Adeps, grease. Seps, a kind of serpent. Serpens, a serpent. Stirps, the trunk of a tree. Forceps, pincers. Scrobs, a ditch.

Animans an animal, which is properly an adjective, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.

Exceptions in X.

1. AX. Anthrax, cinnabar; corax, a raven; cordax, a kind of dance; dropax, an ointment; styrax, a kind of tree; thorax, a breast-plate; and Atax, the river Aude, are masculine; limax, a snail, is common.

2. EX. Nouns in ex are masculine, except fax, forfex, lex, nex, prex, (obsolete in nom. and gen. sing.), and supellex, which are feminine; to which add (§ 29) carex, ilex, murex, pellex, and vitex. Atriplex is nenter and very rarcly musculine or feminine. Alex, a fish-pickle; cortex, bark; imbrex, a gutter-tile; obex, a bolt; and silex, a flint, are doubtful: senex, an old person; grex, a herd; rumex, sorrel; and pumex, pumice-stone, are masculine and very rarely feminine.

IX. Cilix, a cup; fornix, an arch; phænix, a kind of bird; and spādix, a palm-branch, are masculine: lārix, the larch-tree; perdix, a partridge; and

rarix, a swollen vein, are masculine or feminine.

OX. Box and esox, names of fishes, are masculine.

UX. Trādux, a vine-branch, is masculine.
YX. Bombyx, a silk-worm; călyx, the bud of a flower; coccyx, a cuckoo; oryx, a wild goat, and names of mountains in yx, as Eryx, are masculine. Onyx, a box made of the onyx-stone, and sardonyx, a precious stone; also, calx, the heel, and calx, lime; lynx, a lynx, and sandyx, a kind of color, are masculine or feminine.

Note. Bombyx, when it signifies silk, is doubtful.

7. Quincunz, septura, décunz, deunz, parts of as, are masculine.

NEUTERS.

§ 66. Nouns ending in a, e, i, y, c, l, t, ar, ur, us, and men, are neuter: as:

diadėma, a crown; rėte, a net; hydromėli, mead; lac, milk; vectigal, revenue ciput, the head; calcar, a spur; guttur, the throat; pectus, the breast; and flamen, a river.

Exceptions in L, C, and E.

 $M\ddot{u}gil$, a mullet, and sol, the sun, are masculine. Sal, salt, is masculine or neuter in the singular; but, in the plural, it is always masculine. Lac is neuter and rarely masculine. Praneste is neuter, and once in Virgil femione.

Exceptions in AR and UR.

§ 67. Furfur, bran; sălar, a tront; turtur, a turtle dove; and vultur, a vulture, are masculine.

Exceptions in US.

- Lěpus, a hare; and Greek nouns in pus (ποῦς), are masculine; as, tripus, a tripod; but lagōpus, a kind of bird, is feminine.
- Nouns in us, having ūtis, or ūdis, in the genitive, are feminine;
 as, juventus, youth; incus, an anvil.
- Pecus, -ŭdis, a brute animal, and tellus, the earth, are feminine. Pessinus, and Selinus, names of towns, are also feminine. See § 29.
 - Grus, a crane; mus, a mouse; and sus, a swine, are masculine or feminine.
 Rhus, sumach, is masculine, and rarely feminine.

RULES FOR THE OBLIQUE CASES OF NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 68. 1. The genitive singular of the third declension of Latin nouns always ends in is, in Greek nouns it sometimes ends in os and us.

A.

2. Nouns in a form their genitive in ătis; as, di-a-dē'-ma, di-a-dem'-ā-tis, a crown; dog'-ma, dog'-mā-tis, an opinion.

E.

Nouns in e change e into is; as, re-te, re-tis, a net; se-di-le, se-di-lis, a seat.

T.

Nouns in i are of Greek origin, and are generally indeclinable; but hydrom'-ë-li, mead, has hyd-ro-mel'-i-tis in the genitive.

0.

§ 69. Nouns in o form their genitive in ōnis; as, ser'-mo, ser mō'-nis, speech; pā'-vo, pa-vō'-nis, a peacock.

rienes.

REMARK. Patrials in o have onis; as, Macedo, onis; but some have onis, as. Eburones, etc. See 3d exception to increments in O, § 287.

Exc. 1. Nouns in do and go form their genitive in inis; as, a-run'-do, a-run'-di-nis, a reed; i-ma'-go, i-mag'-i-nis, an image.

But four dissyllables—cūdo, ūdo, līgo and mango; and three trisyllables—comèdo, unēdo, and harpāgo, have ōnis.

Exc. 2. The following nouns, also, have inis:—Apollo; homo, a man; nemo,

nobody; and turbo, a whirlwind.

<u>Căro</u>, flesh, has, by syncope, carnis. Anio, the name of a river, has Aniënis;

Nerio, the wife of Mars, Nerienis; from the old nominatives, Anien, and No-

Exc. 3. Some Greek nouns in o form their genitive in $\bar{u}s$, and their other cases singular, in o_i ; as, Dido, gen. Didos, dat. Didos, etc.; Argo, -us; but they are sometimes declined regularly; as, Dido, Didosis.

Y.

Greek nouns in y have their genitive in yos; as, misy, misyos, or, by contraction, misys.

C.

§ 70. The only nouns in c are \(\vec{a}'\)-lec, \(a\)-lec'-cis, fish-brine, and \(lac\), \(lac'\)-tis, milk.

L. N. R.

Nouns in l, n, and r, form their genitive by adding is; as, con'-sul, con'-su-lis, a consul; că-non, can'-ŏ-nis, a rule; hŏ-nor, ho-nō'-ris, honor.

So, An'-I-mal, an-i-mā'-lis, an animal, VI'-gil, vig'-I-lis, a watchman. Ti'-tan, Ti-tā'-nis, Titan. Si'-ren, Si-rē'-nis, a Siren. Del'-phin, del-phi'-nis, a dolphin. Cal'-car, cal-cā'-ris, a spur. Car'-cer, car'-cē-ris, a prison. A'-mor, a-mō'-ris, love. Gut'-tur, gut'-tū-ris, the throat. Mar'-tyr, mar'-tÿ-ris, a martyr.

Exceptions in L.

Fel, gall, and mel, honey, double I before is, making fellis and mellis.

Exceptions in N.

§ 71. 1. Neuters in en form their genitive in inis; as, flu-men, flu-mi-nis, a river; glu-ten, glu-ti-nis, glue.

The following masculines, also, form their genitive in Inis:—oscen, a bird which forbirded by its notes; pecten, a comb; tibicen, a piper; and tubicen, a trumpeter.

Some Greek nouns in on form their genitive in ontis; as, Laomédon, Laomedontis. Some in in and gn add is or os; as, Trāchin, or Trāchyn, Trachinis or Trachynos.

Exceptions in R.

Nouns in ter drop e in the genitive; as, pū-ter, pa-tris, a father.
 So also inder, a shower, and names of months in ber; as, October Octobris.

4

But crāter, a cup; sōtèr, a savior; and later, a brick, retain e in the gentive.

 Far, a kind of corn, has farris; hepar, the liver, hepatis; Lar or Lars, Lartis; iter, a journey, has itneris from the old nominative itiner; Jupiter Jovis; and cor, the heart, cordis.

These four in ur have oris in the genitive:—ĕbur, ivory; fĕmur, the thigh;
 jĕcur, the liver; röbur, strength.

Fémur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, and jocinoris.

AS.

§ 72. Nouns in as form their genitive in ātis; as, &-tas, &-tas, age; př-ĕ-tas, pi-e-tā'-tis, piety.

Exc. 1. As has assis; mās, a male, mārıs; vas, a surety, vădis; and vās, a vessel, vāsis. Anas, a duck, has anătis.

Exc. 2. Greek nouns in as form their genitive according to their gender; the masculines in antis, the feminines in ādis or ādos, and the neuters in ādis; as, adāmas, -antis, adamas, -antis, adamas, -ādis, a lamp; Pallas, -ādis or -ādos; bucē-ras, -ādis, a species of herb. Arcas, an Arcadian, and Nomas, a Numidian, which are of the common gender, form their genitive in ādis. Mēlas, the name are represented in a result of the common gender.

ES.

§ 73. 1. Nouns in es form their genitive by changing es into is, itis, etis, or etis; as, rū'-pes, ru'-pis, a rock; mī'-les, mil'-ī-tis, a soldier; eĕ-ges, seg'-ē-tis, growing corn; qui'-es, qui-ē'-tis, rest.

REMARK. A few Greek proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes form their genitive in ei, or, by contraction, i, after the second declension; as, Achilles, is, et or -i : and a few in e after the first declension; as, Arestes, is or e.

2. Those which make itis are,

Ales, a bird.
Ames, a fowler's staff.
Antistes, a priest.
Caspes, a turf.
Comes, a companion.
Eques, a horseman.
Fomes, touchwood.

Gurges, a whirlpool.
Hospes, a guest.
Līmes, a limit.
Merges, a sheaf of corn.
Miles, a soldier.
Palmes, a vine-branch.
Pědes, a foot-soldier.

Poples, the ham.
Satelles, a lifeguard.
Stipes, the stock of a tree.
Termes, an olive bough.
Trämes, a by-path.
Vēles, a skirmisher.

- The following have étis:—abies, a fir-tree; aries, a ram; indiges, a man deified; interpres, an interpreter; paries, a wall; séges, a corn-field; and téges, a mat.
- 4. The following have \$\tilde{\epsilon} is:\to Cibes; Cres, a Cretan; libes, a caldron; magnes, a loadstone; quies and requies, rest; inquies, restlessness; and tipes (used only in acc. and abl.), tapestry.\to Some Greek proper names have either \$\tilde{\epsilon} is in the gentitive; as, Chr\tilde{\epsilon} nes, -\tilde{\epsilon} is, or -\tilde{\epsilon} s. Dhr\tilde{\epsilon} = \tilde{\epsilon} is.
- Exc. 1. Obses, a hostage, and præses, a president, have idis. Hēres, an heir, and merces, a reward, have ēdis; pes, a foot, and its compounds, have édis.

Exc. 2. Ceres has Cereris; bes, bessis; præs, prædis; and æs, æris.

IS.

§ 74. Nouns in is have their genitive the same as the nominative; as, au'-ris, au -ris, the ear; a'-vis, a'-vis, a bird.

Exc. 1. The following have the genitive in eris:—cinis, ashes; pulvis, dust; romis or romer, a ploughshare. Cucumis, a cucumber, has eris and rarely is.

Exc. 2. The following have idis:—căpis, a cup; cassis, a helmet; cuspis, a point; lăpis, a stone; and promulsis, an antepast.

Exc. 3. Two have inis: -pollis, fine flour, and sanguis or sanguen, blood.

Exc. 4. Four have itis:—Dis, Pluto; lis, strife; Quiris, a Roman; and Samnis, a Samnite.

Exc. 5. Glis, a dormouse, has gliris.

GREEK NOUNS.

1. Greek nouns in is, whose genitive ends in ios or eos, (tos or eos), form their genitive in Latin in is; as (a.) verbals in sis; as, basis, mathèsis, etc. (b.) compounds of polis (xins); as, metropòis, Neapòlis, etc.; and (c.) a few other proper names, as Charybuls, Lachèsis, Syrtis, etc. In some nouns of this class the Greek genitive is sometimes found; as, Nemēsis, Nemesios.

Greek nouns in is, whose Greek genitive is in Idos (1805), form their Latin genitive
in Idis; as, agis, aspis, ephemēris, pyrāmis, tyrannis, Enēis, Iris, Nerēts, etc. Tigris
has both is and Idis; and in some other words of this class later writers use is instead
of Idis.

3. Charis has Charitis; Salamis, Salaminis, and Simbis, Simoentis.

OS.

§ 75. Nouns in ōs form their genitive in ōris or ōtis; as, flos, flō'-ris, a flower; nĕ-pos, ne-pō'-tis, a grandchild.

The following have oris:-

Flos, a flower.

Glos, a husband's sister.

Läbos or läbor, labor.

Löpos or löpor, wit.

Ros, dew.

Honos or honor, honor. Mos, a custom.

Arbos or arbor, a tree, has oris.

The following have ōtis:-

Cos, a whetstone.
Dos, a dowry.

Monocĕros, a unicorn.
Nĕpos, a grandchild.
Sacerdos, a priest.

Exc. 1. Custos, a keeper, has custēdīs; bos, an ∞ , bêvis; and δs , a bone, ossis. Exc. 2. Some Greek nouns in δs have δis in the genitive; as, hēvos, a herois, a Trojan; and some Greek neuters in δs are used in the third declension in the nominative and accusative only; as, Argos, $\epsilon itos$, ϵpos , $m \delta los$.

US.

- § 76. 1. Nouns in ŭs form their genitive in ĕris or ŏris; as, gĕ nus, gen'-ĕ-ris, a kind; tem'-pus, tem'-pŏ-ris, time.
- Those which make ēris are, ācus, (chaff), fuelus, fūnus, gēnus, glūmus, lū tus, mūnus, ôlus, ônus, ôpus, pondus, rūdus, scēlus, sidus, ulcus, vellus, viscus and vulnus. In early writers pignus has sometimes pignēris.
- Those which make oris are, corpus, decus, dedecus, facinus, fenus, frigus, lėpus, litus, nėmus, pectus, pecus, penus, pignus, stercus, tempus, and tergus.
- Exc. 1. These three in ūs have ūdis:—incūs, an anvil; pālūs, a morass; and subscūs, a dove-tail. Pēcūs, a brute animal, has pecūdis.
- Exc. 2. These fiv have ūtis:—juventūs, youth; sālūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, slavery virtūs, virtue.

Exc. 3. Monosyllables in ūs have ūris; as, crus, the leg; jus, right; jus, broth; mus, a mouse; pus, matter; rus, the country; tus, frankincense; except grus, and sus, which have gruis, and suis; and rhus, which has rhois or roris. Tellus, the earth, has tellūris; and Ligus or Ligur, a Ligurian, has Ligūris.

Exc. 4. Fraus, fraud, and laus, praise, have fraudis, laudis.

Exc. 5. Greek nouns in pūs (ποὺς) have ŏdis; as, tripus, tripŏdis, a tripod; Œdipus, -ŏdis; but this is sometimes of the second declension.

Exc. 6. Some Greek names of cities in us have untis; as, Amathustis. So Trapézus, Opus, Pessinus, and Selinus.

Exc. 7. Greek nouns ending in eus are all proper names, and have their genitive in eos; as, Orpheus, -eos. But these nouns are found also in the second declension; as, Orpheus, -éo r-i. Cf. § 64, 6.

YS.

§ 77. 1. Nouns in ys are Greek, and make their genitive in yis (contracted ys), or, as in Greek, yos (voc); as,

Cotys, gen. Cotys or Cotys; Tethys, -vis or yos. So Atys, Capys, Erinnys Halys, Othrys. A few have yolis; as, chlamys, chlamydis.

S preceded by a consonant.

 Nouns in s, with a consonant before it, form their gentive by changing s into is or tis; as, trabs, tră'-bis, a beam; hi'-ems, hi'-emis, winter; pars, par'-tis, a part; frons, fron'-tis, the forehead.

(1.) Those in bs, ms, and ps; as, scrobs, hieme, surps, change s into is; except grups, a griffin, which has griphis.

REMARK. Compounds in ceps from capio have ipis; as, princeps, principis, a prince. But auceps has aucipis.

(2.) Those in ls, ns, and rs, as, puls, gens, ars, change s into tis.

Exc. 1. The following in ns change s into dis:—frons, foliage: glans, an acorn; juglans, a walnut; lens, a nit; and libripens, a weigher.

Exc. 2. Tiryns, a town of Argolis, has Tirynthis in the genitive.

T.

§ 78. 1. Nouns in t form their genitive in itis. They are, căput, the head, gen. cap'-i-tis; and its compounds, occiput and sinciput.

X.

- 2. Nouns in x form their genitive by resolving x into cs or gs, and inserting i before s; as, vox (vocs) $v\bar{o}$ -cis, the voice; lex (legs) $l\bar{e}$ -gis, a law.
- (1.) Latin nouns in ax have ācis; as, fornax, fornācis, except fax, fācis. Most Greek nouns in ax have ācis; as, hōrax, thorācis; a few have ācis; as, zōrax, corācis; and Greek names of men in nax have nactis; as, Astyānaz, Astyanactis.
- (2.) Nouns in ex have icis; as, jūdex, jūdicis: ôbex has obicis or objicis; and vibex, vibicis. New, prex, (noun obs.), rèsex and fenisex have êcis; diex, narthex, and vervex have êcis, and fixx, fixeis. Lex and rez have êgis; aquilea and grex havs igis; rêmex has renigis; sènex, sènis; and supellex, supellectilis.

(8.) Nouns in ix have icis; as, cervix, cervicis; and less frequently icis; as, călix, calicis. But nix has nivis; strix, foreign names of men, and gentile nouns in rix have igis; as, Biturix, Dumnorix, etc.

(4.) Nouns in ox have ōcis; as, vox, vōcis; but Cappadox has Cappadocis; Allobrox, Allobrogis; and nox, noctis.

(5.) Of nouns in ux, crux, dux, tradux, and nux have ucis; lux and Pollux, ūcis .- Conjux has conjugis, frux (nom. obs.) frugis, and faux, faucis.

(6.) Yx, a Greek termination, has ycis, ycis, or ygis, ygis. Onyx and sardonya, in which x is equivalent to chs (§ 3, 2) have ychis; as, onyx, onychis.

DATIVE SINGULAR.

The dative singular ends in i; as, sermo, dat. sermoni.

Anciently it also ended in e; as, morte dătus. Varro in Gellius. So ære for ori, Cic. and Liv.; and jure for juri. Liv.

ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

(a.) The accusative singular of all neuter nouns is like the nominative.

(b.) The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, ends in Yet some Latin nouns in is, which do not increase in the genitive, have im, and some Greek nouns have im, in, or a.

 Many proper names in is, denoting places, rivers, or gods, have the accusative singular in im; as, Hispālis, Tibēris, Anābis; so also Albis, Athēsis, Bonis, Arar or Arāris, Bilbilis, Apis, Osiris, Syrtis, etc. These sometimes, also, make the accusative in in; as, Albin. Scaldis has in and em, and Līris, im, in, and em. Liger has Ligerim.

2. The following also have the accusative in im:-

Mephītis, foul air. Pelvis, a basin. Rāvis, hoarseness. Sināpis, mustard. Amussis, a mason's rule. Būris, a plough-tail. Cannabis, hemp.

Cucumis, (gen. -is), a cucumber. Securis, an axe.

Sitis, thirst. Tussis, a cough. Vis. strength.

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These have im, and sometimes em:—

Febris, a fever. Puppis, the stern. Restis, a rope. Turris, a tower.

But these have em, and rarely im:-

Sementis, a sowing. Bipennis, a battle-axe. Nāvis. a ship. Strigilis, a flesh-brush. Clāvis, a key. Præsēpis, a stall. Messis, a harvest.

4. Lens and pars have rarely lentim and partim; and cratim from crates, .s found in Plantus.

Early writers formed the accusative of some other nouns in im.

Accusative of Greek Nouns.

The accusative singular of masculine and feminine Greek nouns sometimes retains the Greek terminations in and a, but often ends, as in Latin, in em or im.

I. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns, whose genitive increases in is or os, impure, that is, with a consonant going before, have their accusative in em or a; as, lampas, lampadis (Greek - Soc) lampada; chlamys, chlamydis, chlamydem, or -ŭ da : Helicon, Heliconis, Helicona,

Remark. In like manner these three, which have is pure in the genitive— $Tr\delta s$, $Tr\delta is$, $Tr\delta is$, $Tr\delta is$, a Troj ian; $h\delta ros$, a hero; and Msnos, a king of Crete.—Aer, the air; ether, the aky; elphin, a dophin; and pacan, a hymn, have usually a; as, $a\delta ra$, $a\epsilon th\delta ra$, elphina, $pa\delta ina$. Pan, a god, has only a.

Exc. 1. Masculines in ts, whose genitive increases in is or as impure, have their accusative in im or in; sometimes in idem; Paris, Paridis; Parim, of Paridem.

Exc. 2. Feminines in is, increasing impurely in the genitive, though they usually follow the rule, have sometimes im or in; as, Elis, Eldis; Elin or Eldem. So tigris, gen. is or idis; acc. tigrim or tigrin.

II. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns in is not increasing, and in ys, gen. yos, form their accusative by changing the s of the nominative into m or n; as, Charybdis, (gen. Lat. -is, Gr. £ac), acc. Charybdim or -in; Hâlys, -yis or -yos, Halym or -yn. So rhus, gen. rhois, has rhum or rhum.

III. Proper names ending in the diphthong eus, gen. ei and eos, have the accusative in ea; as, Thēseus, Thesea; Tydeus, Tydeus. See § 54, 5.

IV. Some Greek proper names in es, whose genitive is in is, have in Latin, along with the accusative in em, the termination en, as if of the first declension; as, Achilles, Achilles, Xerxes, Xerxen; Sophocles, Sophocles. Cf. § 45, I. Some also, which have either êtis or is in the genitive, have, besides êtem, êta, or em, the termination en; as, Chrèmes, Thâles.

VOCATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 81. The vocative is like the nominative.

EXMARK. Many Greek nouns, however, particularly proper names, drop s of the nominative to form the vocative; as, Daphais, Daphai; Tethys, Tethy; Melampus, Melampus, Orpheus, Orpheus. Proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes have a vocative in ē, after the first declension; as, Socrätes, Socrätes 4 55, 1.

ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 82. The ablative singular commonly ends in e.

Exc. 1. (a.) Neuters in e, al, and ar, have the ablative in i; as, sedīle, sedīli; anīmal, animāli; calcar, calcāri.

(b.) But names of towns in e, and the following neuters in ar, have e in the ablative; viz. baccar, an herb; far, corn; hēpar, the liver; jūbar, a sunbeam; hectar, nectar; par, a pair; sal, salt. Rēte, a net, has either e or i; and māre, the sca, has sometimes in poetry mare in the ablative.

Exc. 2. (a.) Nouns which have im alone, or both im and in in the accusative, and names of months in er or is, have i in the ablative; as, vis, vim, vi; Tibéris, -im, i; December, Decembri; Aprilis, Aprili.

(b.) But Batis, cannābis, and sīnāpis, have e or i. Tigris, the tiger, has signide; as a river it has both Tigride and Tigri.

Exc. 3. (a.) Nouns which have em or im in the accusative, have their ablative in e or i; as, turris, turre or turri.

(h.) So Elis, acc. Elidem and Elin, has Elide or Eli. But restis, and most Greek nouns with idis in the genitive, have e only; as, Păris, idis, ide.

Exc. 4. (a.) Adjectives in is, used as nouns, have commonly i in the ablative, but sometimes e; as, familiaris, a friend; natālis, a birthday; sodālis, a companion; trirēmis, a trireme.—Participles in ns, used as nouns, have commonly e in the ablative, bu continens has i.

(b.) When adjectives in is become proper names, they always have e; as Juvenātis, Juvenāte. Aff ints and æddis have generally e; as have always juvenis, a youth; riddis, a rod; and volücris, a bird.

Exc. 5. (a.) The following, though they have only em in the accusative, have e or i in the ablative, but most of them have oftener e than i:—

Amnis,	Collis,	Ignis;	Pars,	•	Supellex,
Anguis,	Convallis,	Imber,	Postis,		Tridens,
Avis,	Corbis,	Mugilis,	Pŭgil,		Unguis,
Bīlis.	Fīnis,	Orbis,	Sordes,		Vectis,
Cīvis,	Fustis,	Ovis,	Sors,		Vesper.
Classis					

(b.) Occiput has only i, and rus has either e or i; but rure commonly signifies from the country, and ruri, in the country. Mel has rarely i.

(c.) So also names of towns, when denoting the place where any thing is said to be, or to be done, have the ablative in i, as, Curthagini, at Carthage, so, Anxari and Lacedomóni, and, in the most ancient writers, many other nous occur with this termination in the ablative. Curalis has i, and very rarely e.

Exc. 6. Nouns in ys, which have ym or yn in the accusative, have their ablative in ye or y; as, Atys, Atys, Atys, at ys.

NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

- § S3. I. The nominative plural of masculines and feminines ends in es; as, sermönes, rūpes:—but neuters have a, and those whose ablative singular ends in i only, or in e and i, have ia; as, cūput, capita; sedile, sedilea; rēte, retia. Aptustre has both a and ia.
 - Some Greek neuters in os have ē in the nominative plural; as, mēlos; nom. plural, mele; (in Greek μέλες, by contraction μέλη). So Tempe.

GENITIVE PLURAL.

- II. The genitive plural commonly ends in um; sometimes in ium.
- Nouns which, in the ablative singular, have i only, or both e and i, make the genitive plural in ium; as, sedile, sedili, sedilium; turris, turre or lurri, turrium.
- Nouns in es and is, which do not increase in the genitive singular, have ium; as, nūbes, nubium; hostis, hostium.

Exc. Cinis, juvėnis, föris, mugilis, proles, strues, and rāles, have um; so oftener have dpis, strigilis, and volácris; less frequently mensis, sédes, and, in the poets only, ambāges, cades, clâdes, vepres, and calestis.

3. Monosyllables ending in two consonants have ium in the genitive plural; as, urbs, urbium; gens, gentium; arx, arcium.

Exc. Lynx, sphinx, and ops (nom. obsolete) have um.

Most monosyllables in s and x pure have um, but the following have ium; dos, mas, glis, lis, os (ossis), faux, (nom. obs.) nix, nox, strix, vis, generally fraus and mus; so also fur and ren, and sometimes lar.

 Nouns of two or more syllables, in ns or rs, and names of nations in as, have commonly ium, but sometimes um; as, cliens, clientium or clientum, Arpinas, Arpinatium.

- (1.) Other nouns in as generally have um, but sometimes ium; as, œtas, œtatum or œtatium. Pena is and optimates have usually ium.
- 5. The following have ium:—caro, compes, linter imber, uter, venter, Samnis, Quiris, and usually Insuber. Fornax and palus have sometimes ium.
- 6. Greek nouns have generally um; as, gigas, gigantum; Arabs, Arābum; Thraz, Thrācum;—but a few, used as titles of books, have sometimes ön; as, Epigramma, epigrammātön; Metamorphösis, -eön. The patrial Maleön also is found in Curtius, 4, 13.

Remark 1. Bos has boum in the genitive plural.

REM. 2. Nouns which want the singular, form the genitive plural as if they were complete; as, mānes, manium; cealtes, cealtum; ilia, ilium; as if from mānis, ceales, and ile. So also names of feats in alia; as, Saturnalia Saturnalium; but these have sometimes orum after the second declension. Ales has sometimes, by epenthesis, aliaum. See § 322, 3.

DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL.

§ 84. The dative and ablative plural end in ibus.

Exc. 1. Bos has būbus and būbus, by contraction, for bovībus; sus has sūbus by syncope, for suībus. § 322, 5, and 4.

Exc. 2. Greek nouns in ma have the dative and ablative plural more frequently in is than in ibus; as, poema, poematis, or poematibus.

Exc. 3. The poets sometimes form the dative plural of Greek nouns, that increase in the genitive, in si, and, before a vowel, in sin; as, herôis, herôidis; herôisi, or herôisin. Ovid. So in Quintilian, Metamorphosèsi.

ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

\$85. The accusative plural ends, like the nominative, in ēs, ă, iă.

Exc. 1. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in is or zīs, instead of z̄s; as, partes, genpartum, acc. partis or partis.

Exc. 2. Greek masculines and feminines, whose genitive increases in is or of impure, have their accusative in as; as, lampad, lampadas. So also heros, herois, herois, and some barbarian names of nations have a similar form; as, Brigantas, Allobrógas.

Jupiter, and vis, strength, are thus declined :- .

Singular.	Singular.	Plural.
N. Ju'-pi-ter,	N. vis,	vī'-res,
G. Jŏ'-vis,	G. vis,	vir'-i-um,
D. Jŏ'-vi,	. D. —	vir'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. Jo'-vem,	Ac. vim,	vī'-res,
V. Ju'-pi-ter,	V. vis,	vī'-res,
Ab. Jŏ'-ve.	Ab. v.	vir'-ĭ-bus.

§ 86. The following table exhibits the principal forms of Greek nouns of the third declension:—

	Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Voc:	Abl.
S.	Lampas,	{ -ădis, -ădos, }	-ădi,	{ -ădem, } -ăda, }	-as,	-ăde.
Pl.	-ădes,	-ădum,	-adibus,	-ădes, }	-ădes,	-adĭbus.
S.	Hēros,	-ōis,	-ōi,	}-ōem, }	-os,	-ōe.
Pl.	ōes,	-ōum,	-oĭbus,	}-ōes, }	-ōes,	-oĭbus.
	Chĕlys,	{ - ỹis, } } ỹos, }	-ği,	}-ym, }	-у,	-ўе <i>от</i> у.
	Poēsis,	{ -is, -ĭos, } -ĕos, }	-i,	{ -im, }	-i,	-i.
	Achilles,	{-is, -ei, -i, } -ĕos, }	-i,	} -em, } -ĕa, ēn, }	-es, -ē,	-e <i>or -</i> i.
	Orpheus,	-ĕos,	-ĕi,	-ĕa,		See § 54.
	Aër,	-ĕris,	-ĕri,		-er,	-ĕre.
1	Dīdō,	-ūs,	-ō,	-ō,	-ō,	-ō.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

§ 87. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us and u. Those in us are masculine; those in u are neuter, and, except in the genitive, are indeclinable in the singular.

Nouns of this declension are thus declined :-

Fruct	us, fruit.	Cornu,	Cornu, a horn.		
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.		
N. fruc'-tŭs,	fruc'-tūs,	N. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,		
G. fruc'-tūs,	fruc'-tu-um,	G. cor'-nūs,	cor'-nu-ŭm,		
D. fruc'-tu-i,	fruc'-ti-bŭs,	D. cor'-nū,	cor'-nĭ-bŭs,		
Ac. fruc'-tum,	fruc'-tūs,	Ac. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,		
V. fruc'-tŭs,	fruc'-tūs,	V. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,		
At. fruc'-tū.	fruc'-tĭ-bŭs.	$Ab. cor'-n\bar{u}.$	cor'-nĭ-bŭs.		

In like manner decline

Can'-tus, a song.	Fluc'-tus, a wave.	Se-nā'-tus, the senate.
Cur'-rus, a chariot.	Luc'-tus, grief.	Ge'-lu, ice. (in sing.)
Ex-er'-ci-tus, an army.	Mo'-tus, motion.	Vě'-ru, a spit.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 88. 1. The following are feminine:-

Acus, a needle.	Fīcus, a fig.	Porticus, a gallery.
Domus, a souse.	Mānus, a hand.	Tribus, a tribe.
DOLLUS, is some.	manus, a manu.	Tilbus, a true.

Colus, a distaff, and the plurals Quinquātrus, a feast of Minerva, and Idus, the

Ides, are also feminine. So noctu, by night, found only in the ablative singular Penus, a store of provisions, when of the fourth declension, is masculine or feminine. Secus, sex, is neuter; see § 94. Spēcus, a den, is masculine and rarely feminine or neuter.

Some personal appellatives, and names of trees, are feminine by signification; as,

Anus, nărus, socrus;—cornus, laurus, and quercus. Myrtus also is eminine and rarely masculine. See § 29, 1 and 2.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 89. Dŏmus, a house, is partly of the fourth declension, and partly of the second. It is thus declined:—

Singular.	Plural.
N. do'-mŭs,	do'-mūs,
 do'-mūs, or do'-mī, 	dom'-u-mm, or do-mo'-rum,
D. dom'-u-i, or do'-mō,	dom'-i-bŭs,
Ac. do'-mŭm,	do'-mūs, or do'-mōs,
V. do'-mus,	do'-mūs,
$Ab. do'-m\bar{o}$.	dem'-i-bus.

- (a.) Domās, in the genitive, signifies, of a house; domī commonly signifies, at home. The ablative domā is found in Plautus, and in ancient inscriptions. In the genitive and accusative plural the forms of the second declension are more used than those of the fourth.
- (b.) Orrnus, a cornel-tree; ficus, a fig, or a fig-tree; laurus, a laurel; and myrtus, a myrtte, are sometimes of the second declension. Pēnus is of the second, third or fourth declension.
- (c.) Some nouns in u have also forms in us and um; as, cornu, cornus, or cornum. Adjectives, compounds of manus, are of the first and second declensions.

REMARK 1. Nouns of this declension anciently belonged to the third, and were formed by contraction, thus:—

Singular. Plural.	
N. fructus, frutues, us,	
 fructuis, -ūs, fructuum, -um, 	
D. fructui, -ū, fructuibus, -ūbus, or -	ĭbŭs
Ac. fructuem, -um, fructues, us,	
V. fructus, fructus, -us,	
Ab. fructuĕ, -ū. fructuĭbŭs, -ŭbŭs, or	-ĭbŭ

- The genitive singular in is is sometimes found in ancient authors; as, anuis, Ter. A genitive in i, after the second declension, also occurs; as, senātus, senāti; tumultus, tumultu. Sall.
 The contracted form of the dative in u is not often used; yet it sometimes
- The contracted form of the dative in u is not often used; yet it sometimes occurs, especially in Cæsar, and in the poets.
 - 4. The contracted form of the genitive plural in um rarely occurs.
- The following nouns have ŭbus in the dative and ablative plural:—

Acus, a needle. Artus, a joint. Partus, a birth. Specus, a den. Arcus, a bow. Lacus, a lake. Pecu, a flock. Tribus, a tribe.

Gēnu, a knee; portus, a arbor; unitrus, thunder; and vēru, a spit, have ibus or ubus.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

§ 90. Nouns of the fifth declension end in es, and are of

They are thus declined: -

Res, a thing.		Dies, a day.		
Singular. N. rēs, G. rĕ'-ī, D. rĕ'-ī, Ac. rĕm, V. rēs, Ab. rē.	Plural. rēs, rē'-rŭm, rē'-bŭs, rēs, rēs,	Singular. N. di-ēs, G. di-ē'-ī, D. di-ē'-ī, Ac. di'-ēm, V. di'-ēs, Ab. di'-ē.	Plural. di'-ēs, di-ē'-rŭm, di-ē'-bŭs, di'-ēs, di'-ēs, di-ē'-bŭs.	

REMARK. Nouns of this declension, like those of the fourth, seem to have belonged originally to the third declension.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

 Dies, a day, is masculine or feminine in the singular, and always masculine in the plural; meridies, mid-day, is masculine only.

Note. Dies is seldom feminine, in good prose writers, except when it denotes duration of time, or a day fixed and determined.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

2. The genitive and dative singular sometimes end in \(\bar{e}\) or in \(\bar{i}\), instead of \(\bar{e}i\); as, gen. \(d\bar{e}\) for \(d\bar{e}i\), Virg.; \(fide\) for \(fide\) for \(fide\), Hor.; \(acie\) for \(acie\), Cæs.—gen. \(plie\) for \(plebe\), \(iv.\)—dat. \(fide\) for \(fide\), Hor., \(permicle\), Liv., and \(permicle\), Nep., for \(permicle\). The genitive \(rangle\) rables contracted for \(rable\) rables, after the third declension, is found in Lucretius.

REMARK 1. There are only about eighty nouns of this declension, and of these only two, res and dies, are complete in the plural. Acies, efficies, eluvies, facies, glacies, progenies, series, species, spec, want the genitive, dative, and ablative plural, and the rest want the plural altogether.

REM. 2. All nouns of this declension end in ies, except four—fides, faith res, a thing; spes, hope; and plibes, the common people;—and all nouns in ies are of this declension, except abies, aries, paries, quies, and requies, which are of the third declension.

DECLENSION OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

§ 91. When a compound noun consists of two nominatives, both parts are declined; but when one part is a nominative, and the other an oblique case, the nominative only is declined. Of the former kind are respublica, a commonwealth, and jusjurandum, an oath; of the latter, mater-familias, a mistress of a family. Cf. § 43, 2.

•	Singular.	Plural.
v. V.	res-pub'-li-ca,	N. V. res-pub'-li-cæ,
G. D.	. re-i-pub'-li-cæ,	G. re-rum-pub-li-cā'-ruы
Ac.	rem-pub'-li-cam,	D. Ab. re-bus-pub'-li-cis,
46.	re-pub'-li-cā.	Ac. res-pub'-li-cas.

	Singular	Plural.	Singular.
N.	jus-ju-ran -dum,	ju-ra-ju-ran -da,	N. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as,
	ju-ris-ju-ran'-di,		G. ma-tris-fa-mil'-i-as,
D.	ju-ri-ju-ran'-do,		D. ma-tri-fa-mil'-i-as,
Ac.	jus-ju-ran'-dum,	ju-ra-ju-ran'-da,	Ac. ma-trem-fa-mil'-i-as,
V.	jus-ju-ran'-dum,	ju-ra-ju-ran'-da, ju-ra-ju-ran'-da.	V. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as,
Ab.	iu-re-iu-ran'-do.		Ab. ma-tre-fa-mil'-i-as, etc.

Note. The preceding compounds are divided and pronounced like the simple words of which they are compounded.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

§ 92. Irregular nouns are divided into three classes— Variable, Defective, and Redundant.

VARIABLE NOUNS.

A noun is variable, which, in some of its parts, changes either its gender or declension or both.

Nouns which vary in gender are called heterogeneous; those which vary in declension are called heteroclites.

Heterogeneous Nouns.

- Masculine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as, Avernus, Dindjmus, Ismārus, Massicus, Mænālus, Pangeus, Tartārus, Taygētus; plur. Averna, etc.
- 2. Masculine in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural: as.

jócus, a jest; plur. jóci, or jóca;—lócus, a place; plur. lóci, passages in books, topics, places; lóca, places;—sibilus, a hissing; plur. sibila, rarely sibili;—intúbus, endive; plur. intúbi or intúba.

- 3. Feminine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as,
- carbăsus, a species of flax; plur. carbăsa, very rarely carbăsi, sails, etc., made of it;—Hierosolýma, -a, Jerusalem; plur. Hierosolýma, -ōrum.
 - 4. Neuter in the singular, and masculine in the plural; as,

cælum, heaven; plur. cæli;—Elysium; plur. Elysii;—Argos; plur. Argi. So siser, neut., plur. sisères, masc.

Neuter in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural;

frēnum, a bridle; plur. frēni or frēna;—rastrum, a rake; plur. rastri, or, more rarely, rastra;—pugillar, a writing tablet; plur. pugillāres or pugillaria.

- 6. Neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as,
- epūlum, a feast; plur. epūlæ;—balneum, a bath; plur. balneæ or balnea;—nunānum, a market-day; plur. nundinæ, a fair.
- 7. Feminine or neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural as.

delicia on delicium, delight; phur. delicia.

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Heteroclites.

§ 93. 1. Second or third declension in the singular, and third in the plural; as,

nom. and acc. jugėrum, an acre; gen. jugėri or jugėris; abl. jugėro and jugėre; plur., nom., and acc. jugėra; gen. jugėrum; abl. jugėris and jugeribus.

 Third declension in the singular, and second in the plural; as, vos, a vessel; plur. vosa, orum. Ancile, a shield, has sometimes anciliorum, in the genitive plural.

Nors. Variable nouns seem anciently to have been redundant, and to have retained a part of each of their original forms. Thus. vāsa.-ōrum, properly comes from vāsum, .i, but the latter, together with the plural of vas, vāsis, became obsolete.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

§ 94. Nouns are defective either in case or in number.

Nouns defective in case may want either one or more cases.
 Some are altogether indeclinable, and are called aptotes.

Such are powho, a pound; most nouns in i; as, gummi, gum: foreign words; as, Aaron, Jawb: simis, a half; glt, a kind of plant; the singular of mille, a thousand; words put for nouns; as, relle summ, for sua voluntas, his own inclination; and names of the letters of the alphabet.

A noun which is found in one case only, is called a Monoptote; if found in two cases, a Diptote; if in three, a Triptote; if in four, a Tetraptote; and if in five, a Pentaptote.

The following list contains most nouns defective in case. Those which occur but once in Latin authors are distinguished by an asterisk:—

*Abactus, acc. pl.; a driving away. Accītu, abl.; a calling for. Admissu, abl.; admission.

Admonitiu, abl.; admonition. Æs, not used in gen. pl.

Affatu, abl.; an addressing;—pl. affatus, -ĭbus.

Algus, nom.; algum, acc.; algu, abl.; cold.

Ambage, abl.; a going around;-pl. entire.

*Amissum, acc.; a loss.

Aplustre, nom. and acc.; the flag of a ship;—pl. aplustria, or aplustra.

Arbitratus, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.;

judgment.
Arcessitu, abl.; a sending for.

Astu, nom., acc.; a city.
Astus, nom.; astu, abl.; craft;—astus,

acc. pl.
Cacoëthes, nom., acc.; an evil custom;—cacoëtae, ncm. pl.; -e, and

-es, acc. pl. Canities, nem -em, acc.; -e, abl. entire.
Circumspectus, nom.; -um; -u; a looking around.

Coactu, abl.; constraint.

Coelite, abl.; pl. entire; inhabitants of heaven.

Cētos, acc.; a whale; -cēte, nom. and

Cassem, acc.; casse, abl.; a net;-pl.

Chaos, nom. acc.; chao, abl.; chaos.

acc. pl.; cetis, dat.

*Commutatum, acc.; an alteration. Compědis, gen.; compěde, abl.; a fetter;—pl. compědes, -ium, -ibus.

Concessu, abl.; permission. Condiscipulātu, abl.; companionship at

Crātim, or -em, acc.; -e, abl.; a hurdle:—nl. crātes. -ium. -ĭbus.

dle;—pl. crătes, -ium, -ibus. Cupressu, abl.; a cypress.

Daps, nom., scarcely used; dăpis, gen. etc. pl. dapes, -ibus; a feast. *Dătu, abl.; a giring.

Derisus, -ui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; ridicule.

Despicatui, dat.; contempt.

Dica, nom.; dicam, acc.; a legal pro-

cess; -dicas, acc. pl. Dicis, gen.; as, dicis gratia, for form's

sake.

Ditionis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e,

abl.; power. Diu, abl.; in the day time.

Divisui, dat.; a dividing. Ebur, ivory ;—not used in the plural.

*Efflagitatu, abi.; importunity. *Ejectus, nom.; a throwing out.

Epos, nom. and acc.; an epic poem. Ergo, abl. (or adv.); for the sake.

Essédas, acc. pl.; war chariots. Evectus, nom.; a carrying out.

Fæx, dregs, wants gen. pl. Fămē, abl.; hunger.

Far, corn, not used in the gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Fas, nom.; acc.; right. Fauce, abl.; the throat;—pl. entire. Fax, a torch, wants gen. pl.

Fel, gall, wants gen. pl. Feminis, gen.; -i, dat.; -e, abl.; the

thigh;—pl. femina, -ibus.
Flictu, abl.; a striking.
Föris, nom. and gen.; -em, acc; -e, abl.; a door;—pl. entire.

Fors, nom.; -tis, gen.; -tem, acc.; -te, abl.; chance.

*Frustratui, abl.; a deceiving.

Frux, fruit, nom. scarcely used;frugis, gen., etc.

Fulgetras, acc. pl.; lightning. Gausape, nom., acc., abl.; a rough gar-

ment;—gausăpa, acc. pl. Glos, nom.; a husband's sister.

Grates, acc. pl.; -gratibus, abl.; thanks. Hebdomadam, acc.; a week.

Hiems, winter, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Hippomanes, nom. and acc.

*Hir, nom.; the palm of the hand. Hortatu, abl.; an exhorting; -pl. hortatībus.

Impětis, gen.; -e, abl.; a shock;—pl. impetibus.

Incitas, or -a, acc. pl.; as, ad incitas reductus, reduced to a strait.

*Inconsultn, abl.; without advice.

*Indultu, abl.; indulgence.

Inferiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acr; -is, abl.; sacrifices to the dead.

Infitias, acc. pl.; a denial; as, ire infit-

ias, to deny. Ingratiis, abl. pl., (used adverbially); against one's will.

Injussu, abl.; without command.

'nquies, nom.; restlessness. astar, nom., acc.; a likeness. Interdiu, abl. (or adv.); in the day time. *Invitatu, abl.; an invitation.

Irrisui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; de rision.

Jovis, nom., rarely used; -pl. Joves. Jugeris, gen.; -e, abl.; an acre; -pl. jugera, -um, -ĭbus.

Jussu, abl.; command. Lābes, a spot, wants gen. pl.

Lucu, abl.; day-light. *Ludificatui, dat.; a mockery.

Lux, light, wants the gen. pl. Mandātu, abl.; a command.

Mane, nom., acc.; mane, or rarely -i, abl.; the morning. Mel, honey, not used in gen., dat., and

abl. pl.

Mělos, nom., acc.; melo, dat.; melody; -měle, nom., acc. pl.

Metus, fear, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Missu, abl.; a sending; -pl. missus, -ĭbus.

Monitu, abl.; admonition; - pl. mon-

Nātu, abl.; by birth. Nauci, gen., with non; as, homo non

nauci, a man of no account.

Něfas, nom., acc.; wickedness. Nēmo, nobody, wants the voc. and

the pl. Nepenthes, nom., acc.; an herb.

Nex, death, wants the voc.; -neces, nom., acc. pl.

Nihil, or nihilum, nom. and acc.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; nothing.

Noctu, abl.; by night. Nuptui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abt.; marriage.

Obex, nom.; -icem, acc.; -ice, or -jice, abl.; a bolt; -pl. obices, -jicibus. Objectum, acc.; -u, abl.; an interposi-

tion :- pl. objectus. Obtentui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a

pretext. Opis, gen.; ŏpem, acc.; ŏpe, abl.; help; -pl. entire.

Oppositu, abl.; an opposing; -pl. oppositus, acc.

Opus, nom., acc.; need.

Os, the mouth, wants the gen. pl. Panăces, nom.; -is, gen.; -e, abl.; an herb.

Pax, peace, wants gen. pl.

Peccatu, abl.; a fault. Pecudis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e,

abl. ;—pl. entire. Pelăge, acc. pl. of pelăgus; the sea. Permissu, abl.; -um, acc.; permission.

Piscatus, nom.; -i, gen.; -um, acc.
-u, abl.; a fishing.

Pix, pitch; pices, acc. pl. Pondo, abl.; in weight. Cf. § 94, 1. Preci, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; prayer . -pl. entire. Procer; nom.; -em, acc.; a peer; -pl. Promptu, abl., readiness.

Pus wants gen. dat. and abl. pl. Relatum, acc. ;-u, abl.; a recital. Repetundārum, gen. pl.; -is, abl.; money taken by extortion. Rogātu, abl.; a request.

Ros, dew, wants gen. pl. Bus, the country, wants gen., dat., and

Satias, nom.; -ātem, acc.; āte, abl.; satiety.

Secus, nom., acc.; sex.

Situs, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; situation ;-situs, nom. and acc. pl.

Situs, nom.; -us, gen.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; rust; -situs, acc. pl. Sol, the sun, wants gen. pl.

Sordis, gen.; -em, acc.; -e and -i, abl; filth;—pl. sordes,-ium, etc.

Spontis, gen.; -e, abl.; of one's own

accord.

Suboles, offspring, wants gen. pl.

Suppetiæ, nom. pt.; -as, acc.; sup-

Tabum, nom.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; corrupt matter.

Tempe, nom. acc. voc. pl.; a vale in Thessaly.

Tus wants gen., dat., and abl. pl. Vēnui and -o, dat.; um, acc.; -o, abl.;

Veprem, acc.; -e, abl.; a brier; - pl.

entire. Verběris, gen.; -e, abl.; a stripe;--pl.

verbēra, um, ibus. Vesper, nom.; -um, acc-; -e, -i, or -o,

abl.: the evening. Vespěra, nom.; -am, acc.; -ā, abl.; the

Vicis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e. abl.; change; -pl. entire, except gen. Tirus, nom.; -i, gen,; -us, acc.; -o, abl.;

Vis, gen. and dat. rare; strength; pl. vīres, -ium, etc. See § 85.

Viscus, nom.; -ĕris, gen.; -ĕre, abl.; an internal organ. pl. viscĕra, etc. Vocātu, abl.; a calling; -vocātus, acc.

REMARK 1. To these may be added nouns of the fifth declension, which either want the plural, as most of them are abstract nouns, or have in that number only the nominative, accusative, and vocative. Res and dies, however, have the plural entire. Cf. § 90, R. 1.

REM. 2. For the use of the vocative, also, of many nouns, no classical authority can be found.

§ 95. Nouns defective in number, want either the plural or the singular.

(a) Many nouns want the plural from the nature of the things which they express. Such are generally names of persons, most names of places (except those which have only the plural), the names of herbs, of the arts, most material and abstract nouns; but these may have a plural when used as common nouns, (§ 26, R. 3.), and many others.

REM. In Latin the plural of abstract nonns is often used to denote the existence of the quality, attribute, etc. in different objects, or the repetition of an action; and in poetry such plurals are used for the sake of emphasis or metre. See § 98.

The following list contains many of the nouns which want the plural, and also some, marked p, which are included in the above classes, but are sometimes used in the plural.

Aconitum, wolfshane, p. Adorea, a military reward Aer, the air, p. Es, brass, money, p.

Ether, the sky.

Evum, age, lifetime, p. Album, an album. Allium, garlic, p Amicitia, friendship, p. Argilla, white clay. Avens, oats, p.

Balaustium, the flower of the pomegranate. Balsamum, balsam, p. Barathrum, a gulf. Callum, hardened skin, p. Călor, heat, p.

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Carduns, a thistle, p. Caro, flesh, p. Cēra, wax, p. Cestus, a girdle. Cicuta, hemlock, p. Cœnum, mud. Contagium, contagion, 2. Crocum, saffron. Crocus, suffron, p. Cruor, blood, p. Cutis, the skin, p. Diluculum, the dawn. Ebur, ivory. Electrum, amber, p. Far, corn, p. Fel, gall, p. Fervor, heat, p. Fides, faith. Fimus, dung. Fŭga, flight, p. Fümus, smoke, p. Făror, madness, p. Galla, an oak-apple, p. Gelu, frost. Glarea, gravel. Gloria, glory, p. Glastum, woad. Glüten, or Glutinum, glue. Gypsum, white plaster. Hepar, the liver. Hesperus, the evening star. Hilum, a little thing. Hordeum, barley, p. Humus, the ground. Indoles, native quality, p. Ira, anger, p. Jubar, radiance. Jus, justice, law, p. Justitium, a law vacation.

Lac, milk. Lætitia, joy, p. Languor, faintness, p. Lardum, bacon, p. Latex, hquor, p. Letum, death. Lignum, wood, p. Linus, mud. Liquor, hquor, p. Lues, a plague. Lŭtum, clay, p. Lux, light, p. Macellum, the shambles. Mane, the morning. Marmor, marble, p. Mel, honey, p. Meridies, mid-day. Mors, death, p. Munditia, neatness, p. Mundus, female ornaments. Muscus, moss. Nectar, nectar. Nēmo, no man. Nequitia, wickedness, p. Nihilum, nihil, or nil, no-Nitrum, natron. Oblivio, for getfulness, p. Omasum, bullock's tripe. Opium, opium. Palea, chaff, p. Pax, peace, p. Penum, and Penus, provisions, p. Piper, pepper. Pix, pitch, p. Pontus, the sea. Prolubium, desire. Pübes, the youth.

Purpăra, purple, p. Quies, rest, p. Ros, dew, p. Rubor, redness, p. Sabŭlo and Sabulum, gravel. Sal, salt. Sălum, the sea. Sălus, safety. Sanguis, blood. Scrupulum, a scruple, p. Senium, old age. Siler, an osier. Sināpi, mustard. Siser, skirret, p Sitis, thirst. Sol, the sun, p. Sopor, sleep, p. Specimen, an example. Spūma, foam, p. Sulfur, sulphur, p. Supellex, furniture. Tābes, a consumption. Tābum, corrupt matter. Tellus, the earth. Terror, terror, p. Thýmum, thyme, p. Tribulus, a thistle, p. Tristitia, sadness. Ver, spring. Vespera, the evening. Veternus, lethargy. Vigor, strength, p. Vīnum, wine, p. Vīrus, poison. Viscum, and Viscus, bird-lime. Vitrum, woad. Vulgus, the common peo ple. Zingiber, ginger.

§ 96. (b). The names of festivals and games, and several names of places and books, want the singular; as, Bacchanalia, a festival of Bacchus; Olympia, the Olympic games; Bucolica, a book of pastorals; and the following names of places:—

Pulvis, dust, p.

Sūsa, Acrocerannia, Baiæ, Fundi, Locri, Parisii, Syracūsæ, Ceraunia. Gabii, Amvclæ, Thermopylæ, Artaxăta, Echatana, Gādes, Philippi, Veii. Gemoniæ, Puteŏli, Athenæ, Esquiliæ,

Note. Some of those in i properly signify the people.

The following list contains most other nouns which want the singular, and also some, marked s, which are rarely used in that number:—

Acta, re	cords			
Adversa		r	mem	oran-
Estīva,			tro	001777
mer q				SWIIV

Alpes, the Alps, s. Annāles, annals, s. Antæ, door-posts. Antes, rows. Antiæ, a forelock.

Apinæ, trifles.
Argutiæ, witticisms, s.
Arma, arms.
Artus, the joints, s.
Bellaria, sweetmeats.

Bigæ, a two-horse char-

Braccæ, breeches. Branchiæ, the gills of fishes. Brevia, shallow places.

Calendæ, the Calends. Cancelli, balustrades. Cāni, gray hairs. Casses, a hunter's net, s. Caulæ, sheep-folds. Celeres, the body-guard of the Roman kings.

Cibaria, victuals, s. Clitellæ, a pack-saddle. Codicilli, a writing. Cœlites, the gods, s. Crepundia, a rattle. Cunabula, and Cūnæ, a cradle.

Cyclades, the Cyclades, s. Decimæ, tithes, s. Diræ, the Furies, s. Divitiæ, riches. Druides, the Druids. Dryades, the Dryads, s. Epulæ, a banquet, s. Eumenides, the Furies, s. Excubiæ, watches.

Exsequiæ, funeral rites. Exta, entrails. Exuviæ, spoils. Facetiæ, pleasantry, s. Feriæ, holidays, s. Fides, a stringed instru-

ment, s. Flabra, blasts. Fraces, the lees of oil. Frāga, strawberries, s. Gemini, twins, s. Genæ, cheeks, s.

Gerræ, trifles. Grates, thanks. Habēnæ, reins, s. Hiberna, sc. castra, win-

ter quarters. Hyades, the Hyades, s. Ilia, the flank.

Idus, the ides of a month. Incunabula, a cradle. Indutiæ, a truce.

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Inferiæ, sacrifices in honor of the dead. Insecta, insects. Insidiæ, an ambuscade, s. Justa, funeral rites. Lactes, small entrails, s. Lamenta, lamentations. Lapicidīnæ, a stone quar-

Induviæ, clothes.

Inferi, the dead.

Ineptiæ, fooleries, s.

Latebræ, a hiding place,

Laurices, young rabbits. Lautia, presents to foreign ambassadors. Lemures, hobgoblins. Lendes, nits

Liběri, children, s. Luceres, a division of the Roman cavalry. Magalia, cottages. Majores, ancestors.

Manes, the shades, s. Manubiæ, spoils of war. Mapalia, huts, s. Minaciæ, and Minæ, threats.

Minores, posterity. Moenia, the walls of a city, s.

Multitia, garments finely wrought. Munia, official duties. Naiades, water-nymphs, s. Nares, the nostrils, s.

Natāles, parentage. Nătes, the haunches, s. Nomæ, corroding sores or ulcers., s.

Nonæ, the nones of a month. § 326, 1. Nūgæ, jests, nonsense. Nundinæ, the weekly mar-

Nuptiæ, a marriage. Oblivia, forgetfulness, s.

Offuciæ, cheats, s. aristocratic party, s.

Optimates, the

Palearia, the aewlap, s. Pandectæ, the pandects Parietinæ, old walls. Partes, a party, s. Pascua, pastures, s. Penates, household gods,

Phalěræ, trappings. Philtra, love potions. Pleiades, the Pleiads on seren stars, s. Posteri, posterity. Præbia, an amulet. Præcordia, the phragm, the entrails. Primitiæ, first fruits. Proceres, nobles, s. Pugillaria, or -ares,

writing-tablets, s. Quadrigæ, a team of four horses, s. Quirites, Roman citizens,

Quisquiliæ, refuse. Reliquiæ, the remains, s. Salebræ, rugged roads, s. Salinæ, salt pits. Scālæ, a ladder, s. Scatebræ, a spring, s. Scopæ, a broom. Scrūta, old stuff. Sentes, thorns, s. Sponsalia, espousals.

Statīva, sc. castra, a stationary camp. Supěri, the gods above. Talaria, winged shoes. Tenebræ, darkness, s. Tesca, rough places. Thermæ, warm baths. Tormina, colic-pains. Transtra, seats for row-

ers, s.

Trīcæ, trifles, toys. Utensilia, utensils. Valvæ, folding doors, s. Vepres, brambles, s. Vergiliæ, the seven stars. Vindiciæ, a legal claim, s. Virgulta, bushes.

The following usually differ in meaning in the different numbers.

Ædes, -is, a temple. Ædes, -ium, a house. Aqua, water. Aquæ, medicinal springs. Auxilium, aid. Auxilia. auxiliary troops.

Bŏnum, a good thing. Bona, property. Carcer, a prison. Carceres, the barriers of a race-course Castrum, a castle.

Castra, a camp. Comitium, a part of the Roman forum. Comitia, an assembly for election. Copia, plenty.

Copiæ, troops, forces.
Cupedia, -w., adaininess.
Cupedia, -Tarum, and
Cupedia, -Tarum, and
Facultas, oblity,
Facultätes, property.
Fastus, -üs, pride.
Fastus, -uum, and
Fasti, -Tum, a calendar.
Fortima, Fortune.
Fortima, Fortune.
Furfur, bran.
Furfur, bran.
Furfur, bran.
Gratia, favor.
Gratia, favor.
Gratia, favor.
Gratia, favor.

Impedimentum, a hinderance.
Impedimenta, bagage.
Litera, a letter of the alphabet.
Litere, an epistle.
Lidus, public games.
Lustrum, a morass.
Lustrum, a haunt or den of
wild beasts.
Mos, custom.
Mores, manners.
Nāris, a nostrūl.
Nāres, he mose.

Natalis, a birthday.
Natales, birth, lineage.
Opera, work, labor.
Opera, workmen.
Opera, workmen.
Opes, eun, means, wealth.
Plaga, a region, tract.
Plaga, nets, tois.
Principlum, a beginning.
Principlum, a beginning.
Principlum, a beginning.
Rostrum, a beak, prow.
Rostrum, a beak, prow.
Rostra, the Rostra.
Sal, salt.
Sales, witticisms.

§ 98. The following plurals, with a few others, are sometimes used in poetry, especially in the nominative and accusative, instead of the singular, for the sake of emphasis or metre.

Hymenæi, marriage.

Equora, the sea.
Alta, the sea.
Alta, the sea.
Amint, courage.
Amre, the air.
Carine, a ke air.
Cervices, the neck.
Colla, the neck.
Come, the hair.
Corotra, a body.
Crepnscula, twilight.
Crepnscula, twilight.
Exsilia, banishment.
Frigora, cold.
Gaudia, joy.
Grannina, grass.
Guttura, the throat.

Ignes, love. Inguina, the groin. Iræ, anger. Jejunia, fasting. Jŭbæ, a mane. Limina, a threshold. Litora, a shore. Mensæ, a service or course of dishes. Neniæ, a funeral dirge. Numiua, the divinity. Odia, hatred. Ora, the mouth, the countenance. Oræ, confines. Ortus, a rising, the east. Otia, ease, leisure.

Pectora, the breast. Reditūs, a return. Regna, a kingdom. Rictus, the jaws. Robora, strength. Silentia, silence. Sīnūs, the bosom of a Roman garment. Tædæ, a torch. Tempora, time. Terga, the back. Thalami, marriage or marriage-bed. Tŏri, a bed, a couch. Tūra, frankincense. Viæ, a journey. Vultus; the countenance.

III. REDUNDANT NOUNS.

§ 99. Nouns are redundant either in termination, in declension, in gender, or in two or more of these respects.

1. In termination: (a.) of the nominative; as, arbor, and arbos, a tree: (b.) of the oblique cases; as, tigris,; gen. tigris, or -idis; a tiger.

2. In declension; as, laurus; gen. -i, or -ūs; a laurel.

3. In gender; as, vulgus, masc. or neut.; the common people.

4. In term nation and declension; as, senecta, -a, and senectus, -atis; old age.

5. In termination and gender; as pileus, masc., and pileum, neut.; a hat-

 In declension and gender; as pēnus, -i or ūs, masc. or fem., and pēnus, -ôris, neut.; a store of provisions. Špēcus, -ūs or -i, masc. fem. or neut.; a cave

In termination, declension, and gender; as, mendn, -a, fem. and mendum,
 i, neut.; a fault.

The following list contains most Redundant Nouns of the above classes :-

Acĭnus, -um, and -a, a berry. Adagium, and -io, a proverb. Admonitio, -um, and -us, ūs, a remind-

ing. Æthra, and æther, the clear sky. Affectio, and -us, ūs, affection. Agamemno, and -on, Agamemnon.

Agamemno, and -on, Agamemnon.
Alabaster, tri, and pl. -tra, ōrum, an
alabaster box.
Alimonia and -um aliment

attaonser our.
Allinonia, and -um, aliment.
Allinvia, and -es, a flood.
Alvearium, and -äre, a bee-hive.
Amaräeus, and -um, marjoram.
Amygdäla, and -um, an almond.
Anfractum, and -us, äs, a winding.
Angiportum, and -us, äs, a narvou lane

or alley. Antidotus, and -um, an antidote. Aranea, and -us, i, a spider. Arar, and Araris, the river Arar. Arbor, and -os, a tree. Architectus, and -on, an architect. Arcus, -ūs, and i, a bow. Attagena, and -gen, a moor-hen. Avaritia, and -ies, avarice. Augmentum, and -men, an increase. Baccar, and -uris, a kind of herb. Bacŭlus, and -um, a staff. Balteus, and -um, a belt Barbaria, and -ies, barbarism. Barbitus, and -on, a harp. Batillus, and -um, a fire-shovel. Blanditia, and -ies, flattery. Buccina, and -um, a trumpet. Būra, and -is, a plough-tail. Buxus, and -um, the box-tree. Cæpa, and cæpe, an onion. Calamister, tri, and -trum, a crisping-

Callues, and -um, hardened skin.
Camcer, cri, or èris, a crab.
Camitia, and ies, hoariness.
Cāpus, and cāpo, a capon.
Carrus, and -um, a kind of waggon
Cassīda, and -cassis, a helmet.
Catīnus, and -um, a bond, dish.
Chirographus, and -um, a pand-wri ng.
Chinguia, -us, and -um, a pirdle.
Clipeus, and -um, a shield.
Cochlearium, -ur, and -üre, a spoon
Colluvio, and -ies, filth.
Commentarius, and -um, a journal
Compages, and -go, a joining.
Constitum, and -us, us, an atlempt.
Constitum, and -io, pertnership.
Contagium, -io, and -es, contact.
Cornum, -us, i, or us, a cornet tree.
Costos, i, and -um a kind of shrub.

Cratera, and crater, a bowl. Crocus, and -um, saffron. Crystallus, and -um, crystal. Cubitus, and -um, the elbow. Cupiditas, and -pido, desire. Cupressus, i, or üs, a cypress-tree. Delicia, and -um, delight. Delphinus, and delphin, a dolphin. Dictamnus, and -um, dittany. Diluvium, -o, and -ies, a deluge. Domus, i, or us, a house. Dorsus, and -um, the back. Duritia, and -ies, hardness. Effigia, and -ies, an image. Elegia, and -on, i, an elegy. Elephantus, and -phas, an elephant. Epitoma, and -e, an abridgment. Essèda, and -um, a chariot. Evander, dri, and -drus, Evander. Eventum, and -us, ūs, an event. Exemplar, and -are, a pattern. Ficus, i, or us, a fig-tree. Fimus, and -um, dung. Fretum, and -us, ūs, a strait. Fulgetra, and -um, lightning. Galerus, and -um, a hat, cap. Ganea, and -um, an eating-house. Gausăpa, -es, -e, and -um, frieze. Gibba, -us, and -er, čri, a hump. Glutinum, and ten, glue. Gobius, and -io, a gudgeon. Grammatica, and -e, grammar. Grus, gruis, and gruis, is, a crane. Hebdomada, and -mas, a week. Helleborus, and -um, hellebore. Honor, and honos, honor. Hyssopus, and -um, hyssop. Ilios, -um, and -on, Troy. Incestum, and -us, ūs, incest. Intubus, and -um, endive. Jugulus, and -um, the throat. Juventa, -us, ūtis, and -as, youth. Lăbor, and lăbos, labor. Lacerta, and -us, a lizard. Laurus, i, or ūs, a laurel. Lěpor, and lěpos, wit. Ligur, and -us, ŭris, a Ligurian. Lupinus, and -um, a lupine. Luxuria, and -ies, luxury. Mæander, -dros, and -drus, Mæander. Margarita, and -um, a pearl. Materia, and -ies, materials. Medimnus, and -um, a measure. Menda, and -um, a fault. Modius, and -um, a measure. Mollitia, and -ies, softness. Momentum, and -men, influence. Mūgil, and -ĭlis, a mullet. Mulciber, ěri, or ěris, Vulcan.

Muletra, and -um, a milk-pail. Munditia, and -ies, neatness. Muria, and ies, brine or pickle Myrtus, i or ūs, a myrtle. Nardus, and -um, nard. Nāsus, and -um, the nose. Necessitas, and -udo, necessity. Nequitia, and ies, worthlessness, Notitia, and ies, knowledge.

Oblivium, and io, forgetfulness. Obsidium, and -io, a siege. Edipus, i, or odis, Œdipus. Ostrea, and -um, an oyster. Palatus, and -um, the palate. Palumba, -us, and -es, a pigeon. Papyrus, and -um, papyrus. Paupertas, and -ies, poverty. Pāvus, and pāvo, a peacock. Pěnus, i, -oris, or ūs, and pěnum, pr > visions. Peplus, and -um, a veil.

Peplus, and -um, a veil.
Perseus, ei, or cos, Perseus.
Piletus, and -um, a hat.
Pimus, i, or ūs, a pine-tree.
Pistrina, and -ur. a bakk-house.
Planitia, and -ies, a plain.
Plato, and Platon, Plato.
Plebs, and plebes, ei, the common people.
Porrus, and -um, a leek.
Postulatum, and -io, a request.

Prasāpia, -ium, -es, or -is, and -e, a stade.
Pratēxtum, and -us, ūs, a pretext.
Prosapia, and -ies, lineage.
Rāpa, and -um, a turnīp.
Requies, ētis or ēt, vest.
Rēte, and rētis, a net.
Retieūlus, and -um, a small net.

Rictum, and -us, as, the open mouth. Sævitia, -ūdo and -ies, ferocity. Săgus, and -um, a military cloak. Sanguis, and sanguen, blood. Satrapes, and satraps, a satrap. Scabritia, and -ies, roughness. Scorpius, -os, and -io, a scorpion. Segmentum, and -men, a piece. Segnitia, and -ies, sloth. Senecta, and -us, old age. Sequester, tri, or tris, a trustes. Sesama, and -um, sesame. Sibilus, and -a, orum, a hissing. Sināpi, and -is, mustard. Sīnus, and -um, a goblet. Sparus, and -a, orum, a spear. Spurcitia, and -ies, filthiness. Stramentum, and -men, straw. Suffimentum, and -men, fumigation. Suggestus, and -um, a pulpit, stage. Suppărus, and -um, a linen garment. Supplicium, -icamentum, and -icatio a public supplication. Tapetum, -ete, and -es, tapestry. Teneritas, and -tudo, softness. Tergum, and -us, oris, the back. Tiāra, and -as, a turban.

Tiàra, and -as, a turban.
Tignus, and -um, a beam, timber.
Tignis, is, or idis, a tiger.
Titànus, and Titan, Titan.
Tonitruum, and -trus, is, thunder.
Torihe, and -al, a bed-covering.
Tribes, and trubs, a beam.
Tribula, and -um, a threshing sledge.
Vespera, -per, éri and éris, the evening.
Vinacins, and -u, frum, a grape-stone.
Viscus, and -um, the mistletoe.
Vulgus, masc. and neut., the common people.

REMARK 1. To these may be added some other verbals in us and io, and Greek nouns in o and on; as, Dio and Dion; also some Greek nouns in es and which have Latin forms in a; as, Atrides and Atrida. See § 45.

Rem. 2. Some proper names of places also are redundant in number; as, Argos and Argi; Fidina and Fidina; Thibe and Thibas.

Note. The different forms of most words in the above list are not equally common, and some are rarely used, or only in particular cases.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

§ 100. Nouns are derived from other nouns, from adjectives, and from verbs.

I. From Nouns.

From nouns are derived the following classes:-

1. A patronymic is the name of a person, derived from that of his father or other ancestor, or of the founder of his nation.

- Note 1. Patronymics are properly Greek nouns, and have been borrowed from that lau guage by the Latin poets.
 - (a.) Masculine patronymics end in ides, ides, ades, and iddes.
- (1.) Nours in us of the second declension, and those nours of the third declension, whose root ends in a short syllable, form their patronymics in ides; as, Priamules; Agamemnon, gen. onis, Agamemnonides.
- (2.) Nouns in ēus and cles form their patronymics in īdes; as, A-trēus, Atrīdes; Herācles (i. e. Hercules,) Heraclīdes.
- REM. 1. Ænides, in Virg. A. 9, 653, is formed in like manner, as if from Ænēus, instead of Ænēus.
- (3.) Nouns in ās and ēs of the first declension form their patronymics in ădes, as £nēās, £nēādes; Hippôtēs, Hippôtādes.
- (4.) Nouns in ius of the second declension, and those nouns of the third decleusion, whose root ends in a long vowel, form their patronymics in iades; as, Thestius, Thestiddes; Amphitryo (gen. inis), Amphitryoniades.
- REM 2. A few nouns also of the first declension have patronymics in idides; as, Anchises, Anchisiades.
- (b.) Feminine patronymics end in is, ēis, and ias, and correspond in termination to the masculines, viz. is to ides, ēis to ides, and ias to iddes; as, Tyndārus, masc. Tyndarides, fem. Tyndāris; Nēreus, masc. Nereides, fem. Nerēis; Thestius, masc. Thestūdes, fem. Thestūas.
- REM. 3. A few feminines are found in the, or tone; as, Nerthe, Acrisione, from Nereus and Acrisius.

NOTE 2. Patronymics in des and ne are of the first declension; those in is and as, of the third.

- 2. A patrial or gentile noun is derived from the name of a country; and denotes an inhabitant of that country; as,
- and denotes an innabitant of that country; as, $Tr\ddot{o}_{s}, \text{ a Trojan man; } Tr\ddot{o}_{a}, \text{ a Trojan woman: } \textit{Macedonian;}$ $\textit{Sanniis, a Sanniite; from Tr\ddot{o}_{i}, \textit{Macedonia, and Sanniium.}}$
- Note 3. Most patrials are properly adjectives, relating to a noun understood; as, hômo, civis, etc. See § 128, 6.
- 3. A diminutive signifies a small thing of the kind denoted by the primitive; as, liber, a book; libellus, a little book.
- Diminutives generally end in *illus*, *illa*, *illa*, or *cillus*, *cilla*, *cillum*, according as the primitive is masuline, feminine, or neuter.
- A. I. If the primitive is of the first or second declension, or its root ends as c, g, d, or t after a vowel, the diminutive is formed by annexing alus, a, son to the root; as, arila, servalus, pueralus, scatalum, cornicala, regulus, capitalum, mercedala; from $\bar{a}ra$, servus, puer, scataum, cornix, (-icis), rex, (rēgis), \bar{c} caput, (-itis), merces, (-ēdis.)
- 2. Primitives of the first or second decleusion whose root ends in e or i, instead of ulus, a, um, add olus, a, um; as, filiolus, gloriola, horreolum; from
- filius, gloria, horreum.

 3. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root ends in l, n, or r, form diminutives by contraction in elus, a, um, and some in illus, a, um; as, occllus, ascllus, libellus, lucellum; from ocalus, astna, liber, lucrum; and sigillum, tigillum, from or signum, tignum.
- B. 1 If the primitive is of the third, fourth, or fifth declension, the diminative is formed in culus, (or iculus), a, um,
- 2. Primitives of the third declension whose nominative ends in r, or in os or us from roots ending in r annex culus to the nominative; as, fraterculus, soror-

căla oscălum, corpuscălum; from j râter, sŏror, ôs, (ŏris), corpus, (-ŏris).—So also primitives in es and is, but these drop thue s of the nominative; as, ignicălus, nabecăla, diecăla; fron ignis, nabec, dies.

 Primitives of other terminations of the third declension, and those of the fourth, add icidus to the root; as, ponticidus, coticila, ossicidum, versicidus, cornicidum; from pons, cos, \$6, (cost), versus, cornu.

4. Primitives in o, (inis or ōnis), in adding chlus, a, um, change the final vowel of the root (i or o) into u; as, homunculus, sermunculus; from hōmo and sermo; and a few primitives of other terminations form similar diminutives; as, avunculus, domunculu; from avus and dōmus.

C. 1. A few diminutives end in uleus, as, equuleus, aculeus; from equus and acus; and a few also in is; as, homuncio, senecio, from homo and senex.

2 Diminutives are sometimes formed from other diminutives; as, ascillables, from discillus; sometimes two or more diminutives with different terminations are formed from the same primitive, as, homuncalus, homulus, and homuncio; from homo; and sometimes the primitive undergoes euphonic changes; as rumuscalus, from vimor.

REM. Some diminutives differ in gender from their primitives; as ranunculus, scamillus, from rana and scamnum,

4. (a.) An amplificative is a personal appellation denoting an excess of that which is expressed by its primitive; as,

Capito, one who has a large head: so nāso, lubeo, bucco, fronto, mento, one who has a large nose, lips, or cheeks, a broad forehead or long chin; from caput, nāsus, labia, bucca, frons, and mentum.

(b.) A few personal appellatives in io denote the trade or profession to which a person belongs; as, ludio, an actor; pellio, a furrier; from ludus, and pellis.

5. The termination ium added to the root of a noun, indicates the office or condition, and often, derivatively, an assemblage of the individuals denoted by the primitive; as, collegium, colleagueship, and thence an assembly of colleagues; servitium, servitude, and collectively the servants; so sacerdotium, and ministerum; from collega, servus, sacerdos, and minister.

6. The termination imonium is added to the root of a few nouns, denoting something derived from the primitives, or imparting to it its peculiar character: as, testimonium, testimony; so vadimonium, patrimonium, matrimonium; from testis, vās (vaids), pāter, and māter.

The termination ētum, added to the root of names of plants, denotes a
place where they grow in abundance; as, quercētum, laurētum, olivētum, from
quercus, laurus, and oliva.

So, also, asculētum, dumētum, myrtētum, and by analogy saxētum. But some drop e; as, carectum, salictum, virgultum, and arbustum.

The termination arium, added to the root of a noun, denotes a receptacle
of the things signified by the primitive; as, aviarium, an aviary; plantarium, a
nursery; from avis, a bird, and planta, a plant.

The termination ile, added to the root of names of animals, marks the
place where they are kept; as, borile, a stall for oxen; so caprile, ovile; from
bos, an ox, caper, a gout, and bois, a sheep.

Note 1. This class and the preceding are properly neuter adjectives.

Note 2. Abstract nouns are derived either from adjectives or from verbs. See § 26, 5.

II. From Adjectives.

§ 101. 1. Abstract nouns are formed by adding the termination was, itudo, ia, itia or ities, ēdo, and imonia to the root of the primitive

- Abstracts in ttas, (equivalent to the English ty or ity), are formed from adjectives of each declension; as, cupidins, teneritas, celeritas, crudelitas, fe'icitas; from cupidus, tiener, celer, crudelis, and felix.
- (1.) When the root ends in i, the abstract is formed in ětas; as, piètas, from pius; and when it ends in t, as only is added; as, honestas from honestus.
- (2.) In a few abstructs i before tas is dropped; as, libertas, juventas, from ther, juvents. In facultas and difficultas, from facilis, difficilis, there is a change also in the root-vowel from i to u.
- (3.) A few abstracts are formed in itus or tus, instead of itas; as, servitus, juventus, from servus and juvenis. See § 76, Exc. 2.
- 3. Abstracts in title are formed from adjectives in us, and some from adjectives of the third declension of two or three terminations; as, magnitable, altitude, fortitude, acritude, from magnus, altus, fortis, acer. Polysyllabic adjectives in tus, generally form their abstracts by adding udo instead of itude to their root; as, consuctado, from consuctus.
- 4. Abstracts in ia (equivalent to the English ce or cy,) are for the most part formed from adjectives of one termination; as, clementia, constantia, impudentia, from clemens, constants, impudens. But some adjectives in us and er including verbals in cundus, likewise form their verbals in ia; as, miseria, angustia, facundia, from miser, angustias, facundus.
- Abstracts in itia and ities are formed from adjectives in us and is; as, justitia, tristitia, duritia, and durities, segnitia and segnities, from justus, tristis, durus, and segnis.
- 6. A few abstracts are formed in \(\tilde{e}d\)0, and a few in \(\tilde{im\tilde{o}nia}\); and sometimes two or more abstracts of different terminations are formed from the same adjective; as, \(\alpha\): \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\). In such case those in \(\tilde{tide}\) and \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\). In such case those in \(\tilde{tide}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\) \(\tilde{c}\). In such case those in \(\tilde{tide}\) and \(\tilde{c}\) \(

REMARK. Adjectives, as distinguished from the abstracts which are formed from them, are called concretes.

III. FROM VERBS.

§ 102. Nouns derived from verbs are called verbal nouns.

The following are the principal classes:-

- Abstract nouns expressing the action or condition denoted by a verb, especially by a neuter verb, are formed by annexing or to their first root; as, amor, love; favor, favor; macror, grief; splendor, brightness; from amo, faveo, macro, and splendeo.
- (a.) Abstracts are also formed from many verbs by annexing ium to the
 first or to the third root; as, colloquium, a conference; gaudium, joy; exvrdium, a beginning; exitum, destruction; solutium, consolation; from collöquor,
 gaudeo, exordior, exeo and solor.
- Some verbal abstracts are formed by annexing ēla, imēnia, or imēnium, to the first root of the verb; as, querēla and querimonia, a complaint; suadēla, persuasion; from queror and suadeo.
- 4. (a.) The terminations men and mentum, added to the first root of the verb, generally with a connecting vowel, denote the thing to which the action belongs, both actively and passively, or a means for the performance of the action; as, fulmen from fulgee, timen from five, agmen from dogo, soldmen from solor, documentum from doce, blundimentum from blundior.
- (b.) The final consonant of the root is often dropped, and the preceding and connecting vowels contracted into one syllable; as, ago, (āgimen,) agmen; foreo, (forimentum,) fomentum.

- (c.) Some words of this class have no primitive verb in use; as, atramentum, ink; but, in this case, the connecting vowel seems to imply its reference to such a verb as atrāre, to blacken.
- 5. (a.) The terminations álum, bălum, călum; brum, crum, trum, annexed to the first root of a verb, denote an instrument for performing the act expressed by the verb, or a place for its performance; as, cingălum, opercălum, ventilabrum, fulcrum, spectrum, from cingo, opério, venor, ventilo, fulcio, spécio.
- (b.) Sometimes călum is contracted into clum; as, vinclum for vinculum. Sometimes, also, s is inserted before trum; as, vostrum, from rödo, and a connecting vowel is placed before this and some of the other terminations; as, arătrum, stabūlum, cubicălum, from ăro, sto, and căbo.
- (c.) Some words of this kind are formed from nouns; as, acetabălum, a vinegar cruet; turibălum, a censer; from acētum and tus.
- 6. (a.) Nouns formed by adding or and riz to the third root of the verb, acnote respectively the male and female agent of the action expressed by the verb; as, adjator, adjatriz, an assistant; faudor, fautriz, a favorer; victor, victriz, a conqueror; from adjato (adjat), fareo (faut), vinco (vict). They are often likewise used as adjectives. The feminine form is less common than the masculine, and when the third root of the verb ends in s, the feminine is sometimes formed in triz; as, tondo (tons-) tonstriz.
- (b.) Some nouns in tor are formed immediately from other nouns; as, viātor, a traveller; janitor, a door-keeper; from via and janua. In meretrix from mereo, i of the third root becomes e.
- (c.) The agent of a few verbs is denoted by the terminations a and o annexed to the first root; as, conviva, a guest; advēna, a stranger; scriba, a scribe; erro, a vagrant; bibo, a drunkard; comēdo, a glutton, from convivo, advēnio, etc.
- 7. Many abstract nouns are formed by annexing io and us (gen. ūs) to the third root of a verb; as, actio, an action; lectu, reading; from ago (act-), lego (lett-);—cantus, singing; visus, sight; ūsus, use; from cāno (cant-), video (vīs-), ūtor (ūs-).
- REMARK 1. Nouns of both forms, and of like signification, are frequently derived from the same verb; as, concursio and concursus, a running together; motio and motus, etc.
- REM. 2. Nouns formed by adding the termination $\bar{u}ra$ to the third root of a verb, sometimes have the same signification as those in io and us, and sometimes denote the result of an action; as, positiva, position; vinctura, a binding together; from powa, and vincto; and the termination ida has sometimes the same meaning; as, querila, complaint; loquila, speech, from quiror and loguor.

Note. One of these forms is generally used to the exclusion of the others, and when two or more are found, they are usually employed in somewhat different senses.

 The termination orium, added to the third root of a verb, denotes the place where the action of the verb is performed; as, auditorium, a lecture-room; conditorium, a repository; from audo and condo.

COMPOSITION OF NOUNS.

§ 103. Compound nouns are formed variously:-

- Of two nouns; as, rupicapra, a wild goat, of rupes and capra. In some words, compounded of two nouns, the former is a genitive; as, senatuseconsultum, a decree of the senate; juriseconsultus, a lawyer; in others, both parts are declined; as, respublica, jusjurandum. See § 91.
- Of a noun and a verb; as, artifex, an artist, of ars and facio; fidicen, a harper of fides and cano; agricola, a husbandman, of ager and colo.

3. Of an adjective and a noun; as, equinoctium, the equinox, of equus and nox; millepéda, a millepede, of mille and pes.

In duumvir, triumvir, decemvir, centumvir, the numeral adjective is in the genitive plural.

REMARK 1. When the former part of a compound word is a noun or an adjective, it usually ends in i; as, artifex, rupicapra, agricola, etc. If the second word begins with a vowel, an elision takes place; as, quinquennium, of quinque and annus; magnaniums, of magnus and annus; magnaniums.

 Of an adverb and a noun; as, nefas, wickedness; nemo, nobody; of ne, fas, and homo. So biduum, of bis and dies.

5. Of a preposition and a noun: as, incuria, want of care, of in and cūra. So intervallum, an interval; precordia, the diaphragm; proverbium, a proverb; subsellium, a low seat; superficies, a surface.

REM. 2. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to that which follows it: as, ignobilis, illepidus, imprudentia, irrumpo, of in and nobilis, lepidus, etc. See § 196.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 104. An adjective is a word which qualifies or limits the meaning of a substantive.

Adjectives may be divided, according to their signification, into various classes; as denoting,

- Character or quality; as, bonus, good; albus, white; amicus, friendly.
- State or condition; as, felix, happy; dives, rich.
- 3. Possession; as, herilis, a master's; patrius, a father's.
- 4. Quantity; as, magnus, great; totus, entire; parvus, small.
- 5. Number; as, ūnus, one; secundus, second; tot, so many; quot, as many. These are called numerals.
- Time; as, annuus, yearly; hesternus, of yesterday; btmus, of two years; trimestris, of three months.
 - Place; as, altus, high; vicīnus, near; aĕrius, aĕrial; terrestris, terrestrial.
 - 8. Material; as, aureus, golden; fagineus, beechen; terrēnus, earthen.
 - 9. Part; as, nullus, no one; aliquis, some one. These are called partitives.
- 10. Country; as, Romānus, Roman; Arpīnas of Arpīnum. These are called patrials.
- 11. Diminution; as, parvilus, from parvus, small; misellus, from miser, miserable. These are called diminutives.
- able. These are called diminutives.
 12. Amplification; as, vinosus and vinolentus, much given to wine; auritus,
- having long curs. These are called amplificatives.

 13. Relation; as, ātīdus, desirous of; mēmor, mindful of; insuētus. These are called relatives.
- 14. Interrogation; as, quantus? how great; qualis? of what kind; quot? how many? quotus? of what number? These are called interrogatives; and, when not used interrogatively, they are called correlatives.
- 15. Specification; as, talis, such; tantus, so great; tot, so many. These are called demonstratives.

DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 105. 1. Adjectives are declined like substantives, and are either of the first and second declensions, or of the third only.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DE-CLENSIONS.

2. The masculine of adjectives belonging to the first and second declensions, ends either in us or in er. The feminine and neuter are formed respectively by annexing a and um to the root of the masculine. The masculine in us is declined like dominus; that in er like gener or ăger; the feminine always like mūsa; and the neuter like regnum.

Remark 1. The masculine of one adjective, sătur, -ŭra, -ŭrum, full ends in ur, and is declined like $g\acute{e}ner$.

Bŏnŭs, good.

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	bo'-nŭs,	bo'-nă,	bo'-nŭm,
G.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nī,
D.	bo'-nō,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nō,
Ac.	bo'-num,	bo'-năm,	bo'-nŭm,
V.	bo'-nĕ,	bo'-nă,	bo'-nŭm,
Ab.	bo'-nō.	bo'-nā.	bo'-nō.
		Plural.	
N.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nă,
G.	bo-nō'-rŭm,	bo-nā'-rŭm,	bo-nō'-rŭm,
D.	bo'-nis,	bo'-nīs,	bo'-nīs,
Ac.	bo'-nōs,	bo'-nās,	bo'-nă,
V.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nă,
Ab.	bo'-nīs.	bo'-nīs.	bo'-nīs.

In like manner decline

Al'-tus, high.	Fī'-dus, faithful.	Lon'-gue, long.
A-vā'-rus, covetous.	Im'-pro-bus, wicked.	Plē'-nus, full.
Be-nig'-nus, kind.	In-i'-quus, uniust.	Tac'-i-tus, silent.

Rem. 2. Like bōnus are also declined all participles in us; as, A-mā'-tus. Am-a-tū'-rus. A-man'-dus.

Rem. 3. The masculine of the vocative singular of adjectives in us is sometimes like the nominative; as, 0 vir fortis atque amicus. Hor. Meus has both mi and meus.

Rem. 4. The genitive plural of distributive numerals ends commonly in âm instead of ŏrum; as, crassitude binûm digitörum. Plin.

Nont

ten'-ĕ-rīs.

3. Těner, tender.

Singular. T.m

	Masc.	1.6/16.	11646.
N.	te'-nĕr, ten'-ĕ-rī, ten'-ĕ-rō, ten'-ĕ-rūm, te'-nĕr, ten'-ĕ-rō.	ten'-ĕ-ră,	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,
G.		ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rī,
D.		ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rō,
Ac.		ten'-ĕ-răm,	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,
V.		ten'-ĕ-rā,	ten'-ĕ-rūm,
Ab.		ten'-ĕ-rā.	ten'-ĕ-rō.
		Plural.	-
N.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
G.	ten-e-rō'-rŭm,	ten-e-rā'-rŭm,	ten-e-rō'-rŭm,
D.	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,
Ac.	ten'-ĕ-rōs,	ten'-ĕ-rās,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
V.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,

ten'-ĕ-rīs. In like manner are declined

ten'-ĕ-rīs.

Ab.

As'-per, rough. Ex'-ter, foreign. Gib'-ber, crook-backed.	Lă'-cer, torn. Li'-ber, free. Mi'-ser, wretched.	Pros'-per, prosperous. Să'-tur, full.
(11b -ber, crook-backea.	MI -ser, wreichen.	

So also alter, except in the genitive and dative singular (see § 107), semifer and the compounds of gero and fero; as, laniger, opifer.

Note. Prosper is less frequent than prosperus, and exter is scarcely used in the nominative singular masculine.

§ 106. The other adjectives in er drop e in declension; as,

Piger, slothful.

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N. G. D. Ac. V. Ab.	pi'-gĕr, pi'-grī, pi'-grō, pi'-grŭm, pi'-gĕr, pi'-grō.	pi'-gră, pi'-græ, pi'-græ, pi'-grăm, pi'-gră, pi'-gră.	pi'-grŭm, pi'-grī, pi'-grō, pi'-grŭm, pi'-grŭm, pi'-grō.
		Plural.	
N. G. D. Ac. V. Ab	pi'-grī, pi-grō'-rūn, pi'-grīs, pi'-grōs, pi'-grī, pi'-grīs.	pi'-græ, pi-grā'-rúm, pi'-grīs, pi'-grās, pi'-græ, pi'-grīs.	pi'-gră, pi-grō'-rum, pi'-grīs, pi'-gră, pi'-gră, pi'-grīs.

In like manner decline

Æ'-ger, sick.	Mă'-cer, lean.	Scă'-ber, rough.
A'-ter, black.	Nī'-ger, black.	Si-nis'-ter, left.
Cre'-ber, frequent.	Pul'-cher, fair.	Tē'-ter, foul.
Glă'-ber, smooth.	Ru'-ber, red.	Vă'-fer, crafty.
In'-te-ger, entire.	Să'-cer, sacred.	, , ,

Dexter, right, has -tra, -trum, and less frequently -tera, -terum.

§ 107. Six adjectives in us, and three in er, have their genitive singular in ius, and their dative in ī, in all the genders :-

Alius, another.	Totus, whole.	Alter, -tera, -terum, the other.
Nullus, no one.	Ullus, any.	Uter, -tra, -trum, which of the two.
Solus, alone.	. Unus, one.	Neuter, -tra, -trum, neither.

To these may be added the other compounds of uter, -namely, uterque, each of two; utercumque, uterlibet, and utervis, which of the two you please; gen. utriusque, etc.—also, alteruter, one of two; gen. alterutrius, and sometimes alterius utrius; dat. alterutri. So alteruterque, and unusquisque. See § 138, 4.

Nullus, sõlus, tõtus, ullus, and ūnus are thus declined :-C*......1....

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ū'-nŭs,	fi'-nă,	ū'-nŭm,
G.	u-nĭ'-ŭs,*	u-nĭ'-ŭs,	u-n ī -ŭs,
D.	u'-nī,	u'-nĩ,	u'-nī,
Ac.	u'-nŭm,	u'-năm,	u'-nŭm,
V.	u'-nĕ,	u'-nă,	u'-nŭm,
Ab.	u'-nō.	u'-nā.	u'-nō.

The plural is regular, like that of bonus.

REMARK 1. Alius has aliud in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and in the genitive alius, contracted for alius.

REM. 2. Except in the genitive and dative singular, alter is declined like tener, and uter and neuter like piger.

REM. 3. Some of these adjectives, in early writers, and occasionally even in

Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, form their genitive and dative regularly, like bonus,

tener, or piger.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

Some adjectives of the third declension have three terminations in the nominative singular; some two; and others only one.

I. Those of three terminations end in er, masc.; is, fem.; and e. neut.; and are thus declined :-

	Ac	er, sharp.	
	S	ingular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ā'-cĕr,	ā -crĭs,	ā'-crĕ,
G.	a'-cris,	a'-cris,	a'-crĭs,
D.	a'-crī,	a'-crī,	a'-crī,
Ac.	a'-crĕm,	a'-crem,	a'-crĕ,
V.	a'-cĕr,	a'-cris,	a'-crĕ,
Ab.	a'-cri.	a'-crī.	a'-cri.

Plural.

N.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
G.	a'-cri-um,	a'-cri-um,	a'-cri-um,
D.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,	ac'-ri-bŭs,	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
V.	a'-cres,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
Ab.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.	ac'-ri-bus.

In like manner are declined the following;-

A. ´-acer, cheerful. Pa-l Cam-pes'-ter, champaign. Pe-c Cel'-ĕ-ber, famous. Pǔ'-E-ques'-ter, equestrian. Sa-l

Pa-lus'-ter, marshy. Pe-des'-ter, on foot. Pu'-ter, rotten. Sa-lu'-ber, wholesome. Sil-ves'-ter, woody. Ter-res'-ter, terrestrial. Vol'-ŭ-cer, winged.

To these add names of months in -ber, used as adjectives; as, October, etc. (cf. § 71), and celer, swift, which has celeris, celere; gen. celeris, etc.

REMARK I. The termination er was anciently sometimes feminine; as, volucer fama. Petr.: and, on the other hand, the masculine often ends in is; as, collis silvestris, Cass.

Rem. 2. Volucer has um in the genitive plural.

§ 109. II. Adjectives of two terminations end in is for the masculine and feminine, and e for the neuter, except comparatives, which end in or and us.

Those in is, e, are thus declined:—

Mitis mild.

		Singular.		Plural.	
	M. & F.	N.		M. & F.	N.
N.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĕ,	N.		
G.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĭs,	G.	mit'-i-ŭm,*	mit'-i-ŭm,
D.	mi'-tī,	mi'-ti,	D.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs,	mit'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	mi'-tčm,	mi'-tě,	Ac.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,
V.	mi'-tis.	mi'-tě,	V.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,
Ab.	mi'-tī.	mi'-tī.	Ab.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.

In like manner decline

Ag -I-lis, active. Brē'-vis, short. Cru-dē'-lis, cruel.

Dul'-cis, sweet. For'-tis, brave. Gră'-vis, heavy. In-col'-ŭ-mis, safe. Mi-rab'-ĭ-lis, wonderful. Om'-nis, all.

Tres, three, is declined like the plural of mitis.

Note. Several adjectives of this class have forms also in us, a, um. See § 116.

§ 110. (a.) All comparatives, except plus, more, are thus declined:—

^{*} Pronouncec mish'-e-a, etc. See § 12.

Mitior,* milder.

mlar.

	M. & F.	N.
N.	mit'-i-ŏr,	mit'-i-ŭs,
G.	mit-i-ō'-rĭs,	mit-i-ō'-rĭs,
D.	mit-i-ō'-rī,	mit-i-ō'-rī,
Ac.	mit-i-ō'-rĕm,	mit'-i-ŭs,
V.	mit'-i-ŏr,	mit'-i-ŭs,
Ab.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.
	Plural.	
	M. & F.	N.
N.	$M. \notin F.$ mit-i- \bar{o}' -r \bar{e} s,	mit-i-ō'-ră,

	$M. \ \mathcal{C} F.$	N.
N.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
G.	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,
D.	mit-i-or'-i-bus,	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
V.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
Ab.	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bŭs.	mit-i-or'-i-bus.

In like manner decline

za mico micinior decime	
Dul'-ci-or, sweeter. Fe-lic'-i-or, happier.	Gra'-vi-or, heavier. Pru-den'-ti-or, more pru-
Fe-ro'-ci-or, fiercer.	dent.
For'-ti-or, braver.	U-be'-ri-or, more fertile.
	Dul'-ci-or, sweeter. Fe-lic'-i-or, happier. Fe-ro'-ci-or, fiercer.

Plūs, more, is thus declined :-

Singular.	Plura	l.
N.	M. & F.	N.
N. plus,	N. plū'-rēs,	plū'-ră, rarely plu -ri-ă,
G. plū'-rĭs,	G. plu'-ri-um,	plu'-ri-ŭm,
D. ——,	D. plu'-ri-bus,	plu'-ri-bŭs,
Ac. plus,	Ac. plū'-rēs,	plū'-ră,
V. ——,	V,	 ,
Ab. (plū'-rĕ, obs.)	Ab. plu'-rĭ-bŭs.	plu'rī-bŭs.

So, but in the plural number only, complures, a great many.

§ 111. III. Other adjectives of the third declension have but one termination in the nominative singular for all genders. They all end in l_1 , r_1 , s_2 , or x_1 , and increase in the genitive.

They are thus declined :-

Fēlix, happy.

Singular.

111.	or P	1V.
N.	fe'-lix,	fe'-lix,
G.	fe-lī'-cĭs,	fe-lī'-cĭs,
D.	fe-lī'-cī,	fe-lī'-cī,
Ac.	fe-li'-cĕm,	fe'-lix,
V.	fe'-lix,	fe'-lix,
Ab.	fe-lī'-cĕ, or -cī.	fe-li'-eĕ, or -cī.

^{*} Pronounced mish'-e-or, etc. See § 12.

Plural.

	M. & F.	N.
N.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,*
G.	fe-lic'-i-ŭm,*	fe-lic'-i-ŭm,
D.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs,	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs
Ac.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
V.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
Ab.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs

Præsens, present.

	M. & F.	N.
N.	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,
G.	præ-sen'-tĭs,	præ-sen'-tīs,
D.	præ-sen'-ti,	præ-sen'-tī,
Ac.	præ-sen'-tem,	præ'-sens,
V.	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,
Ab.	præ-sen'-tĕ, or-tī.	præ-sen'-tĕ, or -tī.

Plural.

N.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,†
G.	præ-sen'-ti-ŭm,	præ-sen'-ti-um,
D.	præ-sen'-ti-bus,	præ-sen'-ti-bus,
Ac.	præ-sen'-tes,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,
V.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-tĭ-ă,
Ab.	præ-sen'-ti-bus.	præ-sen'-ti-bus.

In like manner decline

Au'-dax, -ācis, bold.	Par'-ti-ceps, -ipis, par-	Sol'-lers, -tis, shrewd.
Com'-pos, -čtis, master of.	ticipant.	Sos'-pes, -itis, safe.
Fe'-rox, -ocis, fierce.	Præ'-pes, -ĕtis, swift.	Sup'-plex, -icis, sup-
In'-gens, -tis, huge.	Prū'-dens, -tis, prudent.	pliant.

REMARK. All present participles are declined like præsens; as,

A'-mans. Mo'-nens. Re'-gens. Ca'-pi-ens. Au'-di-ens.

Note. A few adjectives of one termination have redundant forms in us, a, um; see § 116.

RULES FOR THE OBLIQUE CASES OF ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 112. Most adjectives of the third declension form their genitive singular like nouns of the same termination.

The following may here be specified:-

Of those in es (cf. § 73) some have -ĕtis; as, hēbes, perpes, propes, and tēres
-inquies and locūples have -ĕtis; —some have -tits; as, dīres, sospes, and superstes;—some have -tids; as, dēses, and rēses; —bīpes, and tripes have -pēdis;—pūbes
vas pubēris, and impūbes, impubēris and impūbis.

^{*} Pronounced fe-lish'-e-um etc See i 10, Exc., and 27., 3, (b.)

[†] Pronounced pre-zen'-she-a, etc

2. Compos and impos have -otis, and exos, exossis.—Exlex has exlēgis, pernoa has pernoctis (§ 78), procox, pracocis, and rēdux, redūcis.—Ciecbs has culbis (§ 77); intercus, intercitis, and vēlus, ecteris. Those in ceps which are compounds of coput, have -cipitis; as, aneceps, praceeps (§ 78, 1); but the compounds of ceps from cipio have -tpis; as, particips, participis.—Those in cors, compounds of cor, have -cordis; as, concors, concordis (§ 71, Exc. 2).—Mēmor and immēmor have -oris.

ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

- § 113. 1. Adjectives which have e in the nominative singular neuter have only i in the ablative.
- Exc. 1. The ablatives bimestre, caleste, and perenne are found in Ovid, and cognomine in Virgil.
- Comparatives and participles in ns, when used as participles, especially in the ablative absolute, have rather ε than i; but participial adjectives in ns have rather i than ε.
 - 3. Adjectives of one termination have either e or i in the ablative.

Exc. 2. The following adjectives of one termination have only e in the ablative:—

Bicorpor, bīpes, cælebs, compos, dēses, discolor, hospes, impos, impūbes, juvēnis, locaples, pauper, princeps, pūber or pūbes, sēnex, sospes, superstes, tricorpor, tricuspis, and tripes.

Exc. 3. The following adjectives of one termination have only i in the ablative:

Anceps, concors, discors, hebes, immemor, Iners, ingens, Inops, memor, par, præceps, recens, repens, vigil, and most adjectives in x, especially those in plex.

REM. 1. Inerte occurs in Ovid, recente in Ovid and Catullus, and præcipe in Ennius.

Rem. 2. Prasens, when used of things, makes the ablative in i; when used of persons, it has e.

NOMINATIVE, ACCUSATIVE, AND GENITIVE PLURAL

- § 114. 1. The neuter of the nominative and accusative plural ends in ia, and the genitive plural of all genders in ium; but comparatives in or, with $v\bar{e}tus$, old, and $\bar{u}ber$, fertile, have a, and um.
- 2. The accusative plural of masculine and feminine adjectives, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in is or $\bar{e}is$, instead of $\bar{e}s$. Cf. § 85, Exc. 1.
- Exc. 1. Those adjectives that have only e in the ablative singular, have um in the genitive plural.
- Exc. 2. Compounds of fácio, cápio, and of such nouns as make um in their genitive plural, with cèler, compar, cicur, dives, mémor, immémor, præpes, supplex, and vigil, make their genitive plural in um.
- Exc. 3. Dis, locuples, sons, and insons have either um or imm. The poets and the later prose writers sometimes form the genitive plural of other adjectives and of participles in ns, by syncope, in um, instead of imm; as, culestum, Virg. Ovid, etc.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

§ 115. Some adjectives are defective, others redundant.

DEFECTIVE ADJECTIVES. .:

 (a.) Many adjectives denoting personal qualities or attributes want the neuter gender, unless when occasionally joined to a neuter substantive used figuratively. Such are the following:—

Bicorpor, bipes, cælebs, compos, consors, degĕner, dīves, impos, impūbes, industrius, inops, insons, invītus, juvēnis, locuples, mēmor, pauper, particeps princeps, pūber, or pūbes, rēdux, sēnex, sons, sospes, superstes, supplex, tricorpor, vīgīl.

- (b.) Victrix and ultrix are feminine in the singular, seldom neuter; in the plural, they are feminine and neuter. Such verbuls partake of the nature both of substantives and adjectives, and correspond to masculines in tor. See § 102, 6, (a.)
- 2. The following want the genitive plural, and are rarely used in the neuter gender:—

Concolor, deses, hebes, perpes, reses, teres, versicolor.

- The names of months, which are properly adjectives, have only the masculine and feminine genders.
- Some adjectives are wholly indeclinable.

Such are frāgi, temperate; nēquam, worthless; sát or sátis, sufficient; the plurals aliquot, tot, quot, totdem, quotquot; and the cardinal numbers from quatuor to centum inclusive, and also mille. Ct § 118, 1, and 8, (b.)

5. The following adjectives are used only in certain cases: -

Bilicem, acc.; doubly-tissued. Cetera, ceterum, the rest, wants the nom. singmusc. Decemplicem, acc.: tenfold. Exspes, nom.; hopeless. Inquies, nom.; etem, acc.; ete, abl.; restless. Mactus, and macte, nom.; macte, acc.: homored; —macti, nom. plur. Necesse, and necessum, nom., acc.; necessury. Plus, nom., acc.; pluris, gen.; more: -pl. plures, a, nom. acc.: ium gen.; ibus, dat., abl. Cf. § 110. Postera, posterum, coming after, wants the nom sing, masc. Pótis, nom. sing, and pl., all genders; able. Pôte, nom. sing, for potest; possible. Septemplicis, gen.; -ce, abl.; seven-fold. Siremps, and sirempse, nom. and acc.; athle. Tantundem, nom. acc.; tantidem, gen.; tantandem, acc.; so much Trilicem, acc.; trebly-tissued; trilices, nom. and acc. pl.

REDUNDANT ADJECTIVES.

 \S 116. The following adjectives are redundant in termination and declension. Those marked r are more rarely used.

Acclivis, and -us, r, ascending.

Auxiliaris, and -us, auxiliary.

Bifigris, and -us, yoked two together.

Dechvis, and -us, r, descending.

Exaumins, and -us, r, descending.

Hilaris, and -us, cheerful.

Imbecillis, r, and -us, weak.

Impubes, and -is, r, -is or -ēris, not

grown up.
Inermis, and -us, r, unarmed.
Infrēnis, and -us, unbridled.

Joculāris, and -ius, r, laughable.
Multijūgis, r, and -us, yoked many to gether.
Opūlens, and -lentus, rich.
Præcox, -cŏquis, and -cŏquus, early ripe.

Proclivis, and -us, r, sloping. Quadrijugis, and -us, yoked four to

Seminimis, and -us, half alive.

Inquies, and -ētus, restless.

UNITETS:TY

10

Semiertais, and -us, half armed. Semisomnis, and -us, r, half asleep. Singulāris, and -ius, single. Sublīmis, and -us, r, hryh.
Unanīmis, r, and -us, unanīmous.
Viŏlens, r, and -lentus, violent.

To these may be added some adjectives in er and is; as, satuber and -bris, celeber and -bris. Cf. § 108, R. 1.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

§ 117: Numeral adjectives are divided into three principal classes—Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive.

I. Cardinal numbers are those which simply denote the number of things, in answer to the question Quot? 'How many?' They are,

_	_		
1.	Unus,	one.	I.
2.	Duo,	two.	11.
3.	Tres,	three.	III.
4.	Quatuor,	four.	IIII. or IV.
5.	Quinque,	five.	v.
6.	Sex,	six.	VI.
7.	Septem,	seven.	VII.
8.	Octo,	eight	VIII.
	Novem,	nine.	VIIII. or IX.
	Děcem,	ten.	X.
	Undecim,	eleven.	XI.
12.	Duoděcim,	twelve.	XII.
13.	Treděcim,	thirteen.	XIII.
	Quatuorděcim,	fourteen.	XIIII. or XIV.
	Quinděcim,	fifteen.	XV.
16.	Seděcim, or sexděcim,	sixteen.	XVI.
17.	Septendecim,	seventeen.	XVII.
18.	Octoděcim,	eighteen.	XVIII.
19.	Novenděcim,	nineteen.	XVIIII. or XIX.
20.	Vīginti,	twenty.	XX.
21	Viginti unus, or	twenty-one.	XXI.
	unus et viginti,	ewency-one.	AAI.
22.	Viginti duo, or	twenty-two.	XXII.
	duo et viginti, etc.,	. *	
30.	Trīginta,	thirty.	XXX.
40.	Quadraginta,	forty.	XXXX. or XL.
	Quinquaginta,	fifty.	L.
60.	Sexaginta,	sixty.	LX.
	Septuaginta,	seventy.	LXX.
80.	Octoginta, or octuaginta,		LXXX.
90.	Nonaginta,	ninety.	LXXXX. or XC.
	Centum,	a hundred.	С.
	Centum unus, or }	a hundred and one	CI.
	tum et unus, etc., j		
	Ducenti, -æ, a,	two hundred.	CC.
300.	Trěcenti, etc.,	three hundred.	CCC.
400.	Quadringenti,	four hundred.	CCCC, or CD.
500.	Quingenti,	five hundred.	IO, or D.
	Sexcenti,	six hundred.	IDC, or DC.
700.	Septingenti,	seven hundred.	IDCC, or DCC.
800.	Octingenti,	eight hundred.	10CCC, or DCCC.
900.	Nongenti,	nine hundred.	LOCCCC, or DCCCC
.000	Mille,	a thousand.	ClO, or M.
.000	Duo millia, or }	two thousand.	CIDCID, or MM.
	bis mille,		,

5000	Quinque millia, or }	five thousand.	IOO.
10000	Decem millia, or {	ten thousand.	ccido.
50000.	Quinquaginta millia, or quinquagies mille, Cantum millia or)	fifty thousand.	iooo.
100000.	Centum millia, or 2	a hundred thousand.	CCCIDDD

§ 118. 1. The first three cardinal numbers are declined; from four to a hundred inclusive they are indeclinable; those denoting hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus.

For the declension of unus and tres, see §§ 107 and 109.

Duo is thus declined :-

	Plural.	
M. N dū'-0, G. du-ō'-rum, D. du-5'-bus, Ac. du'-0, or du'-0, V. du'-0,	F. du'-æ, du-ā'-rum, du-ā'-bus, du'-as, du'-æ,	N. du'-0, du-ō'-rum, du-ō'-bus, du'-0,
Ab. du-5'-bus.	du-ā'-bus.	uu-ō'-bus.

REMARK 1. Duōrum, duārum, are often contracted into duūm, especially in nipounds; as, duāmvir, and when joined with millium.—Ambo, both, which ritakes of the nature of a numeral and of a pronoun, is declined like duo.

- 2. The cardinal numbers, except $\bar{u}nus$ and mille, are used in the lural only.
- REM. 2. The plural of unus is used with nouns which have no singular, or whose singular has a different sense from the plural; as, una napina, one mange; una castra, one camp. It is used also with nouns denoting several things considered as one whole; as, una vestimenta, one suit of clothes. So also, when it takes the signification of "alone" or "the same"; as, uni Ubii, the Ubians alone; unis moribus vivere,—with the same manners.
- 3. (a.) Thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, and nineteen, are often expressed by two numbers, the greater of which usually precedes, united by et; thus, decem et tres, decem et novem, or, omitting et, decem novem. Octodecim has no good authority. See infra, 4.
- (b.) From twenty to a hundred, the smaller number with et is put first, or the greater without et; as, unus et viginti, or viginti unus. Above one hundred, the greater procedes, with or without et; as, ceutum et unus, or ceutum unus, trecenti sexaginta sex. or trecenti et sexaginta sex. Et is never twice used, but the poets sometimes take ac, atque, or que, instead of et.
- 4. For eighteen, twenty-eight, etc., and for nineteen, twenty-nine, etc. (excepting sixty-eight, sixty-nine, and ninety-eight), a subtractive expression is more frequent than the additive form; as, dwodevigint, two from twenty; undevigint, one from twenty; undevigint, underriginta, etc. Neither un (unus) nor dwo can be declined in these combinations. The additive forms for thirty-eight, etc. to ninety-eight, and for forty-nine, etc. to ninety-nine, except those for sixty-nine, seem not to occur.
- 5. (a.) Thousands are generally expressed by prefixing the smaller cardinal numbers to millia, a s., dicem millia, ten thousand, ducenta millia, two hundred thousand. As there is in Latin no unit above mille, a thousand, the higher units of modern numeration are expressed by prefixing the numeral adverbs to the

combination centena millia; as, decies centena millia, a million; centies centena millia, ten millions. In such combinations centena millia is sometimes omitted; as, decies, scil. centena millia.

- (b.) The poets sometimes make use of numeral adverbs in expressing smaller numbers; as, bis sex for duodécim; bis centum for ducenti, etc.
 - 6. Mille is used either as a substantive or as an adjective.
- (a.) When taken substantively, it is indeclinable in the singular number, and, in the plural, has milliam, millium, millius, etc.; as, mille hominum, at thousand men; duo millia hominum, two thousand men, etc. When mille is a substantive, the things numbered are put in the genitive, as in the preceding examples, unless a declined numeral comes between; as, habuit tria millia trecents milites.
- (h.) As an adjective, mille is plural only, and indeclinable: as, mille homines, a thousand men; cum bis mille hominibus, with two thousand men.
- 7. Capitals were used by the Romans to mark numbers. The letters employed for this purpose were C. I. L. V. X., which are, therefore, called Numeral Letters. I. denotes one; V. fice; X. ten; L. fifu; and C. a hundred. By the various combinations of these five letters, all the different numbers are expressed.
- (a.) The repetition of a numeral letter repeats its value. Thus, II. signifies two; III. three; XX. twenty; XXX. thirty; CC. two hundred, etc. But V. and L. are never repeated.
- (b.) When a letter of a less value is placed before a letter of a greater value, the less takes away its value from the greater; but being placed after, it adds its value to the greater; thus,

IV. Four. V. Five. VI. Six. IX. Nine. X. Ten. XI. Eleven. XL. Forty. L. Fifty. LX. Sixty.

XC. Ninety. C. A hundred. CX. A hundred and ten.

(c.) A thousand was marked thus, CIO, which, in later times, was contracted into M. Five hundred is marked thus, IO, or, by contraction, D.

(d.) The annexing of the apostrophus or inverted C(O) to IO makes its value ten times greater; thus, IOO marks five thousand; and IOOO, fifty thousand.

- (e.) The prefixing of C, together with the annexing of O, to the number GIO makes its value ten times greater; thus, CCIOO denotes ten thousand; and CCCIOOO, a hundred thousand. The Romans, according to Pliny, proceeded no further in this method of notation. If they had occasion to express a larger number, they did it by repetition; thus, CCCIOOO, CCCIOOO, signified two hundred thousand, etc.
- (f.) We sometimes find thousands expressed by a straight line drawn over the top of the numeral letters. Thus, III. denotes three thousand; X̄, ten thousand.
- § 119. II. Ordinal numbers are such as denote order or rank, and answer to the question, Quŏtus? Which of the numbers? They all end in us, and are declined like bŏnus; as, prīmus, first; secundus, second.
- III. Distributive numbers are those which indicate an equal division among several persons or things, and answer to the question, Quotenite How many apiece? as, singuil, one by one, or, one to each; bini, two by two, or two to each, etc. They are always used in the plural, and are declined like the plural of bōnus, except that they usually have the instead of ōnum in the genitive plural. Cf. § 105, R. 4.

The following table contains the ordinal and distributive numbers, and the

corresp	onding numeral adver	rbs, which answer to the qu	estion, Quoties? How
	imes?—		, -
	Ordinal.	Distributive.	Numeral Adverbs.
1.	Prīmus, first.	Singuli, one by one.	Semel, once.
2.	Secundus, second.	Bīni, two by two.	Bis, twice.
	Tertius, third.	Terni, or trini.	Ter, thrice.
4.	Quartus, fourth.	Quaterni.	Quater, four times.
5.	Quintus, fifth	Quini.	Quinquies.
6.	Sextus, sixth.	Sēni.	Sexies.
7.	Septimus, seventh.	Septēni.	Septies.
8.	Octavus, eighth.	Octoni.	Octies.
9.	Nonus, ninth.	Novēni.	Novies.
10.	Decimus, tenth, etc.	Dēni.	Děcies.
11.	Undecimus.	Undēni.	Undecies.
12.	Duodecimus.	Duodēni.	Duodecies.
13.	Tertius decimus.	Terni dēni.	Terdecies.*
14.	Quartus decimus.	Quaterni deni.	Quatuordecies.
15.	Quintus decimus.	Quini deni.	Quindecies.
16.	Sextus decimus.	Sēni dēni.	Sedecies.
17.	Septimus decimus.	Septēni dēni.	Decies et septies.
18.	Octāvus decimus.	Octoni deni.	Duodevicies.
19.	Nonus decimus.	Novēni dēni.	Undevicies.
20.	Vicēsīmus, or vigesīmus.	Vicēni.	Vīcies.
21.	Vicesimus primus.	Vicēni singŭli.	Semel et vicies.
22.	Vicesimus secundus.		Bis et vicies, etc.
30. {	Trīcesīmus, or trigesīmus.	Trīcēni.	Trīcies.
40.	Quadragesimus.	Quadragēni.	Quadragies.
50.	Quinquagesimus.	Quinquageni.	Quinquagies.
60.	Sexagesimus.	Sexagēni.	Sexagies.
70.	Septuagesimus.	Septuageni.	Septuagies.
80.	Octogesimus.	Octogēni.	Octogies.
90.	Nonagesimus.	Nonagēni.	Nonagies.
100.	Centesimus.	Centeni.	Centies.
200.	Dücentesimus.	Ducēni.	Ducenties.
300.	Trecentesimus.	Trecēni, or trecentēni.	Trecenties, or
800.	Trocontrollingor		tricenties.
400.	Quadringentesimus	{ Quadringëni, or } quadringentëni. }	Quadringenties.
500.	Quingentesīmus.	Quingēni.	Quingenties.
600.	Sexcentesimus.	Sexcēni, or sexcentēni.	Sexcenties.
700.	Septingentesimus.	Septingēni.	Septingenties.
800.	Octingentesimus.	Octingeni.	Octingenties.
900.	Nongentesimus.	Nongeni.	Noningenties.
1000.	Millesimus.	Milleni, or	Millies.
		singula millia.	

Bis millēni, or)
bīna millia. § 120. 1. In the ordinals, instead of primus, prior is used, if only two are spoken of. Alter is often used for secundus.

Bis millies.

2000. Bis millesimus.

2. (a., From thirteenth to nineteenth, the smaller number is usually put first, without et; as, tertius decimus, but sometimes the greater with or without

et; as, decimus et tertius, or decimus tertius.

(b.) Twenty-first, thirty-first, etc., are often expressed by unus et vicesimus, unns et tricesimus, etc., one and twentieth, etc.; and twenty-second, etc., by due, or alter et ricesimus, etc., in which due is not changed. In the other compound numbers, the larger precedes without et, or the smaller with et; as, vicestmus quartus, or quartus et vicesimus.

- (c.) For eighteenth, etc., to fifty-eighth, and for nineteenth, etc. to fifty-ninth, he subtractive forms, duodevicesimus, etc., and undevicesimus, etc., are often used.
- In the distributives, eighteen, thirty-eight, forty-eight, and nineteen and twenty-nine, are often expressed by the subtractives duodeviceui, etc., undevicini, etc.
- (a.) Distributives are sometimes used by the poets for cardinal numbers; as, bina spicala, two darts. Virg. So likewise in prose, with nouns that want the singular; as, bine napties, two weddings.
- (b.) The singular of some distributives is used in the sense of multiplicatives; as, binus, twofold. So ternus, quinus, septenus.
- 5. In the numeral adverbs, for the intermediate numbers 21, 22, etc., the arger number also may be put first, either with or without et; and for twenty-eight times and thirty-nine times, duodetricies and undequadragies are found.

§ 121. To the preceding classes may be added the following:-

1. Multiplicatives, which denote how many fold, in answer to the question, $\mathit{quotiplex?}$ They all end in plex , and are declined like $f \in lix$; as,

Simplex, single.
Dŭplex, twofold, or double.
Triplex, threefold.
Quadruplex, fourfold.

Quincuplex, fivefold. Septemplex, sevenfold. Decemplex, tenfold. Centuplex, a hundred fold.

- Proportionals, which denote how many times one thing is greater than
 another; as, diplus, a, um, twice as great; so triplus, quadruplus, octaplus, decaptus. They are generally found only in the neuter.
- 3. Temporals, which denote time; as, bimus, a, um, two years old; so trimus, quadrimus, etc. Also, biennis, lasting two years, biennisl; so quadriennis, quincunis, etc. So also, bimestris, of two months' continuance; trimestris, etc., biduus, etc. To these may be added certain nouns, compounds of annus and dies with the cardinal numbers; as, biennium, triennium, etc., a period of two, etc. years; biduum, triduum, etc., a period of two, etc. days.
- Adjectives in arius, derived from the distributives, and denoting of how many equal parts or units a thing consists; as, binarius, of two parts; ternarius, etc.
- 5. Interrogatices; as, quot, how many? quotus, of what number? quotien, how many each? quoties, how many times? Their correlatives are tot, tottdem, so many; allquot, some; which, with quot, are indeclinable; and the adverbs, tottes, so often; allquoties, several times.
- 6. Fractional expressions, which denote the parts of a thing. These are expressed in Latin by pars with dimidia, tertia, quarta, etc. Thus, \(\frac{1}{2}\), dimidia pars; \(\frac{1}{2}\), tertia pars, \(\epsilon\), etc. When the number of parts into which a thing is divided exceeds by one only the parts mentioned, as in \(\frac{3}{2}\), \(\frac{3}{2}\), etc. the fraction is expressed simply by dux, tres, etc. partes, denoting two out of three, three out of four, etc.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 122. 1. Adjectives may be divided into two classes—those which denote a variable, and those which denote an invariable, quality or limitation.

Thus, bōnus, good, allus, high, and opācus, dark, denote variable attributes; but ancus, brazen, triplex, threefold, and diurnus, daily, do not admit of different degrees in their signification.

 The comparison of an adjective is the expression of its quality a different degrees. 3. There are three degrees of comparison—the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

4. The positive simply denotes a quality, without reference to other

degrees of the same quality; as, altus, high; mitis, mild.

5. The comparative denotes that a quality belongs to one of two objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to the other; as, altior, higher; mitior, milder.

 The superlative denotes that a quality belongs to one of several objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to any of the rest; as, altissimus, highest; mitissimus, mildest.

REM 1. Sometimes also the comparative denotes that a quality, at different times or in other circumstances, belongs in different degrees to the same object as, est supientior quam fuil, he is wiser than he was.

REM. 2. The comparative sometimes expresses the proportion between two qualities of the same object; as, est doctior quam sapientior, he is more learned than wise; that is, his learning is greater than his wisdom.

REM. 3. The comparative is also used elliptically instead of our 'too' or rather'; as, vivit liberius, he lives too freely, or, rather freely. Cf. § 256, R. 9

- REM. 4. The superlative, like the positive with per, (cf. § 127, 2), often indicates a high degree of a quality without direct comparison with the same quality in other objects; as, amicus carissimus, a very dear friend.
- § 123. · 1. Degrees of a quality inferior to the positive may be denoted by the adverbs minus, less; minime, least, prefixed to the positive; as, jucundus, pleasant; minus jucundus, least pleasant. minime jucundus, least pleasant.
- A small degree of a quality is indicated by sub prefixed to the positive; as, amārus, bitter; subamārus, bitterish, or, somewhat bitter.
- An equal degree of a quality may be denoted by tam followed by quameque followed by ac, sic followed by ut, etc.; as, hêbes, æque ac pêcus, as stupid as abrute.
- § 124. 1. The comparative and superlative in Latin, as in English, are denoted either by peculiar terminations, or by certain adverbs prefixed to the positive. Cf. § 127, 1.
- 2. The terminational comparative ends in ior, ior, ior, its; the terminational superlative in issīmus, issīma, issīmum.
- . 3. These terminations are added to the root of the positive; as, altus, altior, altissimus; high, higher, highest.

 mitis, mitior, mitissimus; mild, milder, mildest.

 kelix, (gen. felicis), felicior, felicissimus; happy, happier, happiest.

In like manner compare

Arc'-tus, strait. Cā'-rus, dear. Doc'-tus, learned. Cru-dē'-lis, cruel. Fer'-tī-lis, fertile. Lĕ'-vis, light. Că'-pax, capacious. Clē'-mens, (gen. -tis) merciful. In'-ers, (gen. -tis), sluggish.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

§ 125. 1. Adjectives in er form their superlative by adding rimus to that termination; as, \(\bar{a}cer\), active; gen. \(acris\); comparative, acrior; superlative, acerrimus.

In like manner, pauper, pauperrimus. Vētus has a similar su; erlative, veterrimus, from the old collateral form vēter.

 Six adjectives in lis form their superlative by adding limus to the root:—

Facilis, Difficilis,	facilior, difficilior,	facillĭmus, difficillĭmus,	easy. difficult
Gracilis,	gracilior,	gracillimus,	stender.
Humilis, Similis,	humilior, similior.	humillimus, simillimus,	low. $like.$
Dissimilis,	dissimilior,	dissimillĭmus,	unlike.

Imbecillus or imbecillis, weak, has two forms, imbecillissimus and imbecillimus.

 (a.) Five adjectives in ficus (from ficio) derive their comparatives and superlatives from supposed forms in ens:—

Beneficus, Honorificus, Magnificus, Munificus, Maleficus,	beneficentior, honorificentior, magnificentior, munificentior,	beneficentissīmus, honorificentissīmus, magnificentissīmus, munificentissīmus, maleficentissimus,	beneficent. honorable. splendid. liberal. hurtful.

(b.) Adjectives in dicens and volens form their comparatives and superlatives regularly; but instead of those positives, forms in dicus and volus are more common; as,

Maledicens or dicus, maledicentior, maledicentissimus, slanderous. Benevolens, or -volus, benevolentior, benevolentissimus, benevolent.

4. These five have regular comparatives, but irregular super-

Dexter,	dexterior,	dextīmus,	right.
Extěra, (fem.)	exterior,	extrēmus, or extīmus,	outward.
Postěra, (fem.)	posterior,	postrēmus, or postūmus,	hind.
Inferus.	inferior.	infīmus, or īmus,	below.
Supěrus,	superior,	suprēmus, or summus,	. above.

Superus, superior, supremus, or summus, above. Remark 1. The nominative singular of postera does not occur in the masculine, and that of extera wants good authority.

5. The following are very irregular in comparison:

	THE TOHO "	ing aic re	ny mroganar.	m comp	WI 100 M .	
	Bŏnus, Mālus,	melior, pējor,	optīmus, pessīmus,	good, bad,	better, worse,	best. worst.
	Magnus,	mājor,	maximus,	great,	greater,	greatest.
	Parvus,	minor,	minimus,	little,	less,	least.
- :	Multus,		plurimus,)			
- :	Multa,		plurima, }	much,	more,	most.
- :	Multum,	plus,*	plurimum,			
	Nēquam,	nequior,	nequissimus,	worthless	, etc.	
	Frūgi,	frugalior,	frugalissīmus,	frugal,	etc.	

REM. 2. All these, except magnus, whose regular forms are contracted, either form their comparatives and superlatives from obsolete adjectives, or take them from other words of similar signification.

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON.

126. 1. Seven adjectives want the positive:-

Citerior, citimus, nearer.
Deierior, deterrimus, worse.
Interior, intimus, inner.
Ocior, ocissimus, swifter.

Prior, prīmus, former. Propior, proximus, nearer. Ulterior, ultimus, farther.

2. Eight want the terminational comparative :-

Consultus, consultissimus, skilful. Inclutus, inclutissimus, renowned. Invictus, invictissimus, invincible. Invitus, invitissimus, unwilling. Bleritus, meritissimus, (very rare,) deserving. Par, parissimus, (very rare), equal. Persuāsus, persuasissimum (neuter) persuaded. Sācer, sacerrimus, sacred.

3. Eight have very rarely the terminational comparative:-

Aprīcus, apricissīmus, sunny. Bellus, bellissīmus, fine. Cōmis, comissīmus, courteous. Diversus, diversissīmus, different. Falsus, falsissīmus, false. Fīdus, fidissīmus, faithful. Novus, novissīmus, new. Vētus, veterrīmus, old.

4. The following want the terminational superlative :-

Adolescens, adolescentior, young. Agrestis, agrestior, rustic. Aliacer, alaciror, active. Aliacer, alaciror, active. Ater, atrior, black. Gacus, cecior, blind. Deses, desidior, inactive. Diuturnus, diuturnior, lasting. Infinitus, infinitior, unlimited. Ingens, ingentior, great. Jejūnus, jejūnior, fasting. Juvēnis, junior, young. Licens, licentior, unrestrained. Longinquus, longinquior, distant. Opimus, opimior, rich.

Proclivis, proclivior, sloping.
Prönus, pronior, bending doom.
Protervus, protervior, violent.
— sequior, worse.
Propinquus, propinquior, near.
Salutāris, salutarior, salutary.
Sātis, sufficient; satius, preferable.
Sātur, saturior, full.
Sātur, saturior, full.
Sātur, saturior, full.
Silvestris, silvestrior, woody.
Sinister, sinisterior, left.
Supfuns, supinior, lying on the back.
Surdus, surdior, deaf.
Tēres, teretior, round.

REMARK 1. The superlative of juvenis and adolescens is supplied by minimus may, youngest; and that of senex by maximus nātu, oldest. The comparatives minor nātu and mājor nātu sometimes also occur.

minor nātu and mājor nātu sometimes also occur.
REM. 2. Most adjectives also in ilis, ilis, ālis, and bilis, have no terminational superlative.

- 5. Many variable adjectives have no terminational comparative or superlative. Such are,
- (a.) Adjectives in bundus, imus, inus (except divinus), orus, most in wus, and in us pure (except quus.) Yet ardnus, asiduus, egregius, exiguus, industrius, perpetuus, pius, strenuue, and vacuus, have sometimes a terminational comparison. So, dropping i, nazior, innazior, sobrior.
- (b.) The following—almus, calvus, cânus, cicur, claudus, degêner, deltrus, dispar, egênus, impar, impiger, invidus, licer, mêmor, mirus, nidus, præcox, prædista, radis, salvus, sospes, superstes, vulgáris, and some others.
- § 127. 1. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs magis, more, and maxime, most; as, idoneus, fit; magis idoneus, maxime idoneus.
- 2. Various degrees of a quality babove the positive are expressed by admödum, aliquanto, apprime, bene, imprimis, multum, appido, perquam, and valde, and also by per compounded with the positive; as difficults, difficult; perdifficilis, very difficult. To a few adjectives prais in like manner prefixed; as, prædurus, very hard.
- The force of the comparative is increased by prefixing etiam, even, still, or yet; and that of both comparative and superlative, by

prefixing longe or multo, much, far; as, longe nobilissimus; longe melior iter multo facilius; multo maxima pars.

4. Vel, 'even', and quam, with or without possum, 'as much as possible', before the superlative, render it more emphatic; as, Cieëro vel optimus oratūrum Romanūrum. Quam maxīmum potest milītum numērum collīgit; quam doctissīmus, extremely learned; quam celerrīme, as speedily as possible.

NOTE 1. Instead of quam with possum, quantus is sometimes used, in the same case as the superlative; as, Quantis maximis potuit itineribus contendit.

Nore 2. Unus, with or without omnium, is sometimes added to superlatives to increase their force; as, Hoc ego uno omnium plurimum ūtor. Cic. Urbem unam mihi amicissimam declināri, Id. It is used in like manner with excello.

- All adjectives whose signification admits of different degrees, if they have no terminational comparison, may be compared by means of adverbs.
- 6. Instead of the comparative and superlative degrees, the positive with the prepositions pra, ante, prater, or supra, is sometimes used; as, pra nobis beātas, happier than we. Cic. Ante alias pulchritudine insignis, most beautiful. Liv. Sometimes the preposition is used in connection with the superlative; as, Ante alias pulcherrimus ownes. Virg.
- 7. Among adjectives which denote an invariable quality or limitation, and which, therefore, cannot be compared, are those denoting matter, time, number, possession, country, part, interrogation; also compounds of jūgum, somnus, gēro, and fēro, and many others.

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

- § 128. Derivative adjectives are formed chiefly from nouns, from other adjectives, and from verbs.
- I. Those derived from nouns and adjectives are called denominatives. The following are the principal classes:—
- (a.) The termination êns, added to the root, denotes the material of which a thing is made, and sometimes similarity; as, aureus, golden; argenteus, of silver; ligneus, wooden; vitreus, of glass; virgineus, maidenly; from aurum, argentum, etc. See § 9, Rem. 3.
- (b.) Some adjectives of this kind have a double form in neus and nus; as, eburneus and eburnus, of ivory.
- (c.) The termination inus has the same meaning; as, adamantinus, of adamant; cedrinus, of cedar; from adāmas and cedrus. So, also, ēnus; as, terrēnus, of earth, from terra.
- (d.) The termination v̄ns or v̄ns (Greek ver), and also icus, belong to adjectives formed from Greek names of men, and denote 'of' or 'pertaining to'; as, Achilleus, Sophoct'us, Aristotelius, Platonicus; Pythagorius and Pythagoricus; Bomerius and Homericus. Names in v̄ns make adjectives in t̄cus; as, Archicus. Sometimes, though rarely in the purest Latin authors, adjectives in v̄ns are formed from Latin names; as, Marcelliu or -ēa, a festival in honor of the Marcelli.
- 2. (a.) The terminations ālis, āris, ārius, ilis, atīlis, tcius, tcus, itus, čūs, and inus, denote 'belongina' 'r rtaining' or 'relating to'; as, capitālis, relating to the life; from caps

So comitiālis, regālis; Apollināris, consulāris, populāris; argentarius; civīlis, hostilis, juvenīlis; aquatilis, fluviatilis; tribunicius, patricius; bellīcus, ciricus, Germanicus; accusatorius, imperatorius, regius; Hectoreus; canīnus, equinus, ferinus, masculinus; from comitia, rex, Apollo, consul, populus, argentum, cīvis, etc.

 (b.) The termination ilis sometimes expresses character; as, hostile; puerilis, bovish; from hostis and puer.

(c.) The termination inus belongs especially to derivatives from names of

animals, and other living beings.

- 3. The termination arius, as a substantive, scil. fuber, etc., generally denotes profession or occupation; as, argentarius, a silversmith; from argentum;coriarius, statuarius; from corium and statua. When added to numeral adjectives, it denotes how many equal parts a thing contains. See § 121, 4.
- The terminations ösus and lentus denote abundance, fulness; as, animosus, full of courage; fraudulentus, given to fraud; from animus and fraus. So lapsdosus, vinosus, portuosus, turbulentus, sanguinolentus, violentus. Before lentus, a connecting vowel is inserted, which is commonly u, but sometimes o.

Note.—Adjectives of this class are called amplificatives. See § 104, 12.

 From adjectives are formed diminutives in ulus, culus, etc., in the same manner as from nouns; as, dulciculus, sweetish; from dulcis. So lentulus, misellus, parvulus, etc. See § 100, 3, and § 104, 11. Diminutives are sometimes formed from comparatives; as, majusculus, duriusculus, somewhat great, somewhat hard, etc. Double diminutives are formed from paucus, viz pauxillus and pauxillulus; and from bonus, (benus) are formed bellus and bellulus.

6. (a.) From the names of places, and especially of towns, are derived patrial adjectives in ensis, inus, as, and anus, denoting of or belonging to such

places.

(b.) Thus from Cannæ is formed Cannensis; from Sulmo, Sulmonensis. In like manner, from castra and circus come castrensis, circensis. But Athena makes Atheniensis; and some Greek towns in ia and ea drop i and e in their adjectives; as, Antiochensis, Nicomedensis.

(c.) Those in inus are formed from names of places ending in ia and ium; as, Aricia, Aricinus; Caudium, Caudinus; Capitolium, Capitolinus; Lotium, Latinus. Some names of towns, of Greek origin, with other terminations, also form adjectives in inus; as, Tarentum, Tarentinus.

(d.) Most of those in as are formed from nouns in um; some from nouns in

 a; as, Arpīnum, Arpīnas; Cupēna, Copēnus.
 (e.) Those in ānus are formed from names of towns of the first declension, or from certain common nouns; as, Alba, Albānus; Roma, Romānus; Camæ, Cumānus; Thēbæ, Thebānus; also from some of the second declension; as, Tusculum, Tusculānus; Fundi, Fundānus:—fons, fontānus; mons, montānus; urbs, urbānus; oppidum, oppidānus.

(f.) Adjectives with the terminations anus, ianus, and inus are formed from names of men; as, Sulla, Sullanus; Tullius, Tullianus; Jugurtha, Jugurthinus. (q.) Greek names of towns in polis form patrial adjectives in politanus; as,

Neapolis, Neapolitānus.

- (h.) Greek names of towns generally form patrials in ius; as, Rhodus, Rhodius; Lacedamon, Lacedamonius; -but those in a form them in aus; as, Larissa, Larissaus; Smyrna, Smyrnaus.
- (i.) From many patrials; as, Britannus, Gallus, Afer, Persa, Arabs, etc., adjectives are formed in icus and ius; as, Britannicus, Gallicus, Africus, Persicus, Arabicus; so Syrus, Syrius; Thrax, Thracius.
- 7. A large class of derivative adjectives, though formed from nouns, have the terminations of perfect participles. They generally signify wearing or furnished with; as,

alātus, winged barbātus, bearded; galeātus, helmeted; aurītus, long-eared turrītus, turretea, co-nūtus, horned; from ala, barba, galea, aurīs, etc.

- 8. The termination aneus, annexed to the root of an adjective or participle in us, expresses a resemblance to the quality denoted by the primitive; as, supervacaneus, of a superfluous nature.
- § 129. II. Adjectives derived from verbs are called *verbal* adjectives. Such are the following classes:—
- The termination bundus, added to the first root of the verb, with a connecting vowel, which is commonly that of the verb, (see § 150, 5), has the general meaning of the present participle; as,

errābundus, moribundus, from erro, morior, equivalent to errans, moriens.

- (a.) In many the meaning is somewhat strengthened; as, gratulābundus, full of congratulations; lacrimābundus, weeping profusely.
- (b.) Most verbals in bundus are from verbs of the first conjugation, a few from those of the third, and but one from the second and fourth respectively, viz. pudibundus and lastivibundus.
- (c.) Some verbal adjectives in cundus have a similar sense; as, rubicundus, verēcundus, from rubeo and vereor.
- The termination idus, added to the root, especially of neuter verbs, denotes the quality or state expressed by the verb; as,
- algidus, cold; calidus, warm; madidus, moist; rapidus, rapid; from algeo, caleo, madeo, rapio.
- The termination uus, also, denotes the quality expressed by the verb; and adjectives in uus derived from active verbs take a passive meaning; as,

congruus, agreeing, from congruo; so, assiduus, nocuus, innocuus:—irriguus, well watered; conspicuus, visible; from irrigo, conspicio.

- 4. (a.) The terminations ilis and bilis, added to the root of a verb, with its connecting vowel, denote passively, capability, or desert; as,
- amabilis, worthy to be loved; credibilis, deserving credit; placabilis, easy to be appeased; agilis, active; ductilis, ductile; from amo, credo, placo; ago, duco. They are rurely active; as, horribilis, terribilis, fertilis; er per cuncta meabilis. Plin.
- (b.) In adjectives of these forms, derived from verbs of the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is i; sometimes, also, in those from verbs of the second conjugation, in these and other forms, i is used instead of e; as, horribilis, terribilis, from horree and terree.
- (c.) These terminations, with the connecting vowel, are sometimes added to the third root; as, flexilis, flexibilis; coctilis, coctibilis, from flecto (flex-), etc.
- 5. The termination icius or itius, added to the third root of the verb, has a passive sense; as, fictitius, feigned; eonductitius, to be hired; from fingo (fict-), etc.
- 6. The termination ax, added to the root of a verb, denotes an inclination, often one that is faulty; as,
- audax, andacions; lóquax, talkative; răpax rapacions; from audeo. lóquar răpio.
- The termination tens, annexed to the third root of a verb, denotes fitness or ability to produce the action expressed by the verb as, disjunctives, disjunctive, from disjungo.

- 8. Verbals in A* and trix, (see § 102, 6, (a.), are often used as adjectives, especially in poetry; as, victor exercitus, victorics litera. In the plural they become adjectives of three terminations; as, victores, victricia. So also hospes, especially by the later poets, is used as an adjective, having hospita in the feminie singular and also in the neuter plural.
- § 130. III. Adjectives derived from participles, and retaining their form, are called *participial adjectives*; as, *āmans*, fond of; *doctus*. learned.
- IV. Some adjectives are derived from adverbs; as, crastĭnus, of to-morrow; hodiernus, of this day; from cras and hodie.
- V. Some adjectives are derived from prepositions; as, contrarius, contrary, from contra; posterus, subsequent, from post.

COMPOSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 131. Compound adjectives are formed variously:-

 Of two nouns; as, capripes, goat-footed—of caper and pes; ignicomus, naving fiery hair—of ignis and coma.

Norg.—See, respecting the connecting short i, in case the first part of the compound as a noun or an adjective, § 103, Rem. 1.

- 2. Of a noun and an adjective; as, noctivagus, wandering in the night—of nox and vagus. So lucif agax, shunning the light—of lux and fugax.
- Of a noun and a verb: as, corniger, bearing horns—of cornu and gero; lettler, bringing death—of letum and fero. So carnivorus, causidious, ignivomus, lucifugus, particeps.
- Of an adjective and a noun; as, æquævus, of the same age—of æquus and ævum; celeripes, swift-footed—of celer and pes. So centimánus, decennis, magnanimus, misertors, unanimis.
- Of two adjectives; as, centumgeminus, a hundred-fold; multicăvus, having many cavities; quintusdecimus, the fifteenth.
- Of an adjective and a verb; as, brevilōquens, speaking briefly—of brevis and lōquor; magnificus, magnificent—of magnus and făcio.
 - 7. Of an adjective and a termination; as, qualiscumque, quotcumque, uterque.
 - 8. Of an adverb and a noun; as, bicorpor, two-bodied-of bis and corpus.
- Of an adverb and an adjective; as, maledicax, slanderous—of male and dicax. So antemeridianus, before mid-day.
- Of an adverb and a verb; as, beneficus, beneficent—of bene and facio; malevolus, malevolent—of male and volo.
- Of a preposition and a noun; as, āmens, mad—of α and mens. So consors, decolor, deformis, implūmis, inermis.
- 12. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, concavus, concave; infīdus, unfaithful. So improvidus, percarus, prædives, subalbidus.
- 13. Of a preposition and a verb; as, continuus, uninterrupted—of con and teneo; insciens, ignorant—of in and scio. So precipuus, promiscuus, substillus, superstes.

REMARK. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometime, changed, to adapt it to the consonant which follows it, as, impradens—of in and pridens—see § 196; and cf. § 103, R. 2.

PRONOUNS.

- 132. 1. A pronoun is a word which supplies the place of a noun.
 - There are eighteen simple pronouns:—

Ego, I. Hic, this, the latter. Suus, his, hers, its, etc. Cujus? whose? Tu, thou. Is, that or he. Sui, of himself, etc. Quis? who? Noster, our. Ille, that, the former. Qui, who. Vester, your. Ipse, himself. Meus, my. Nostras, of our country.

Iste, that, that of yours. Tuus, thy. Cujas? of what country

- Ego, tu, and sui, and commonly also quis and its compounds, are substantives: the other pronouns, both simple and compound, are adjectives, but are often by ellipsis used as substantives.
- 4. Ego, tu, and sui are commonly called personal pronouns. They are a species of appellatives (§ 26, 3,) of general application. Ego is used by a speaker to designate himself; tu, to designate the person whom he addresses. Hence ego is of the first person, tu of the second. (§ 35, 2.) Sui is of the third person, and has always a reflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. The oblique cases of ego and tu are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person.
- 5. The remaining pronouns, except quis and its compounds, are adjectives, as they serve to limit the meaning of substantives; and they are pronouns, because, like substantive pronouns, they may designate any object in certain situations or circumstances.
- 6. Meus, tuns, suns, noster, vester, and cujus, have the same extent of signification as the pronouns from which they are derived, and are equivalent to the genitive cases of their primitives.
- 7. Pronouns, like substantives and adjectives, are declined; but most of them want the vocative. Sui, from the nature of its signification, wants also the nominative in both numbers.
- 8. The substantive pronouns take the gender of the objects which they denote. The adjective pronouns, like adjectives, have three genders.

SUBSTANTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 133. The substantive pronouns are thus declined:-

Singular.

N. ĕ'-gŏ, I.	tū, thou.	((, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
G. me'-ī, of me.	tu'-ī, of thee.	{ su'-i, of himself, her- self, itself.
D. mi'-hi, to me. Ac. mē, me. V. Ab. mē, with me.	tĭb'-ĭ,* to thee. tē, thee. tū, O thou. tē, with thee.	sīb' ī,* to himself, etc. sē, himself, etc. sē, with himself, etc.

^{*} See § 19. 1, Exc.

Plural.

N. nos, we.	vos, ye or you.	
G. { nos'-trum or nos'-tri, } of us	ves'-trum or of you.	su'-ī, of themselves.
D. nō'-bis, to us.	vō'-bîs, to you.	sĭb'-i, to themselves.
Ac. nos, us.	vos, you.	sē, themselves.
V	vos, O ye or you.	
Ab. no'-bis, with us.	vo'-bis, with you.	sē, with themselves.

REMARK 1. $M\bar{e}$ and $m\bar{i}$ are ancient forms for mihi. So min' for mihine, Pers. 1, 2.

REM. 2. The syllable met is sometimes annexed to the substantive pronouns. an an intensive sense, either with or without ipse; as, egomet, I myself; minimative ipse, for myself. It is not annexed, however, to the genitives plural, nor to the inthe nominative or vocative. In these cases of the table or tablement is used. In the accusative and ablative the reduplicated forms minimated the intensive gular, and sist in both numbers, are employed intensively. Mepte, intensive, med and ted, for me and te, and mis and tis for mei and tui, occur in the comic writers.

Nostrum and vestrum are contracted from noströrüm, noströrüm, and vestrorim, reströrüm. Respecting the difference in the use of nostrum and nostri, vestrum and estri, see § 212, R. 2, N. 2.

 The preposition cum is affixed to the ablative of these pronouns in both numbers; as, mēcum, nobiscum, etc. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 134. Adjective pronouns may be divided into the following classes:—demonstrative, intensive, relative, interrogative, indefinite, possessive, and patrial.

Note. Some pronouns belong to two of these classes.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative pronouns are such as specify what object is meant.

They are ille, ste, hic, and is, and their compounds, and are thus declined:—

Singular.			Plural.		
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. il'-lĕ,	il'-lă,	il'-lŭd,	il'-lī,	il'-læ,	il'-lă, il-lō'-rum,
G. il-lī'-us,* D. il'-lī,	il-lī´-us, il´-lī,	il-lī'-us, il'-lī.	il-lō'-rum, il'-līs,	il-lā'-rum, il'-līs,	il'-līs,
Ac. il'-lum,	il'-lam,	il'-lŭd,	il'-lōs,	il'-lās,	il'-lă,
V. il'-lĕ, Ab. il'-lō.	il'-lă, il'-lā.	il'-lŭd, il'-lō.	il'-lī, il'-līs.	il'-læ, il'-līs.	il'-lă, i l'-līs.

Iste is declined like ille.

	Singular	r.			Plural.	
M.	F.	N.		M.	F.	N.
N. hìc, G. hū'-jŭs, D. huic*, Ac. hune, V. hắc, 4b. hōc.	hæc, hū'-jŭs, huic, hanc, hæc, hāc.	hắc, hữ-jŭs, huic, hắc, hắc, hắc.		hī, hō'-rum, hīs, hōs, hī, hīs.	hæ, hā'-rum, hīs, hās, hæ, his.	hæc, hō'-rum, hīs, hæc, hæc,
	Singular.				Plural.	
M.	F.	N.		M.	F	N.
N. ĭs, G. ē'-jŭs, D. e'-ī, Ac. e'-um, V. ————————————————————————————————————	e'-ă, ē'-jŭs, e'-ī, e'-am, e'-ā.	ĭd, ē'-jŭs, e'-ī, ĭd, e'-ō.	e e	-ōs,	e'-æ, e-ā'rum, i'-īs or e'-īs, e'-ās, 	e'-ă,

REMARK 1. Instead of ille, ollus was anciently used; whence olli masc. plur. in Virgil. Illus fem, for illius and ulli, is found in Lucretius and Cato, as also in Cato, he for huic fem.; hice for hi, and hec for he in Plautus and Torence. Im for eam, is found in the Twelve Tables; eii for ei, and ibus and iibus for its, in Plautus; ee, fem., for ei, and eabus for its, in Cato.

REM. 2. From ecce, lo! with ille, iste, and is, are formed, in colloquial language, non-, ecca; eccilla, eccillad; acc. sing., eccum, eccam; eccillum (by syncope ellum), eccillem; eccistam; acc. plur., eccos, ecca.

REM. 3. Istic and illic are compounded of iste hic, and ille hic; or, as some say, of iste ce, and ille ce. The former sometimes retains the aspirate, as isthic. They are more emphatic than ille and iste.

Istic is thus declined :-

	Sing	ular.		Plure	zl.	
M.	F.	N.	ı	M.	F.	N.
N. is'-tie,	is'-tæc,	is'-tōc, or is'-tūc,	N.		is'-tæc,	
Ac. is'-tune,	is'-tanc,	is'-toc, or is'-tūc,	Ac.	_		is'-tæc.
Ab. is'-toc.	is'-tāc.	is'tōc.	1			

Illic is declined in the same manner.

REM. 4. Ce intensive, is sometimes added to the several cases of hic, and rarely to some cases of the other demonstrative pronouns; as, hujusce, hunce, hance, hoce, hice, hace or hee, horune, harunce, harune, or harune, hosee, hasee, hisce; illiuse, illide, illose, illuse, illide; istace, istisee; ejusce, iisee. When ne, interrogative, is also annexed, ce becomes ci; as, hæccine, hoscine, hiscine; istuccine, istuccine, istoscine; illicine, illanccine.

REM. 5. Modi, the genitive of modus, annexed to the genitive singular of acmonstrative and relative pronouns, imparts to them the signification of adjectives of quality; as, hujusmodi or hujuscemodi, like talks, of this sort, such; Whusmodi and istinsmodi, of that sort; cujusmodi, of what sort, like qualits; cu-

juscemodi, cujusquemodi, cujusmodicumque, of what kind soever; cujusdammodi, of some kind. So also istimedi, cuimodi and cuicuimodi, instead of istiusmodi, cujusmoda, etc.

REM. 6. The suffix dem is annexed to is, forming idem, "the same," which is thus declined:-Singular.

M. N. Y'-dem, G. e-jus'-dem, D. e-Y'-dem, Ac. e-un'-dem,	F. e'-ă-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-ī'-dem, e-an'-dem,	N. 1'-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-ī'-dem, I'-dem,
$Ab. e-\bar{o}'-dem.$	e-ā'-dem.	e-ō'-dem.
	Plural.	
М.	F.	N
N. i-ī'-dem,	e-æ'-dem,	e'-ă-dem,
C. e-o-run'-dem,	e-a-run'-dem,	e-o-run'-dem,
D. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem,	e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem,	
Ac. e-os'-dem,	e-as'-dem,	e'-ă-dem,

Ab. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem. e-is'dem, or i-is'-dem.

Note 1. In compound pronouns, m before d is changed into n; as, eundem, corundem, etc.

NOTE 2. In Sallust isdem, and in Palladius hisdem occur for iisdem; and Ennius in Cicero has eademmet for eadem.

INTENSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 135. Intensive pronouns are such as serve to render an object emphatic.

To this class belong ipse, and the intensive compounds already mentioned. See §§ 133, R. 2, and 134, R. 4.

Ipse is compounded of is and the suffix pse, and is thus declined:-

Singular.			Plural.		
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. ip'-sĕ,	ip'-să,	ip'-sum,	ip'-sī,	ip'-sæ,	ip'-să,
G. ip-sī'-us,	ip-sī'-us,	ip-sī'-us,	ip-sō'-rum,	ip-sā'-rum,	ip-sō'-rum,
D. ip'-si,	ip'-sī,	ip′-sī,	ip'-sīs,	ip'-sīs,	ip'-sīs,
Ac. ip'-sum,	ip'-sam,	ip'-sum,	ip'-sōs,	ip'-sās,	ip'-să,
V. ip'-sĕ,	ip'-să,	ip'-sum,	ip'-sī,	ip'-sæ,	ip'-să,
Ab. ip -so.	ip′-sā.	ip'-sō.	ip'-sis.	ip'-sīs.	ip'-sīs.

REMARK 1. Ipse is commonly subjoined to nouns or pronouns; as, Jupiter ipse, tu ipse, Jupiter himself, etc.; and hence is sometimes called the adjunctive pronoun.

REM. 2. A nominative ipsus, occurs in early writers, and a superlative ipsissimus, his very self, is found in Plautus.

REM. 3. In old writers the is of ipse is declined, while pse remains undeclined; as, eapse, (nom. 1 ad abl.), eampse, and eopse, instead of ipsa, ipsam and ipso. So also reapse, . e. re eapse, " in fact."

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

- § 136. Relative pronouns are such as relate to a preceding noun or pronoun.
- 1. They are qui, who, and the compounds quicumque and quisquis, whoever. The latter are called general relatives.
- 2. In a general sense, the demonstrative pronouns are often relatives; tut the name is commonly appropriated to those above specified. They serve to introduce a proposition, limiting or explaining a preceding noun or pronoun, to which they relate, and which is called the autecedent.

Qui is thus declined :-

Singular.			Plural.		
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. qui, G. cū'-jŭs, D. cui,* Ac. quem, V. — Ab. quō.	quæ, cū'-jŭs, cui, quam, quā.	quŏd, cū'-jŭs, cui, quŏd, —— quō.	quī, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quōs, quī'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quās, ————————————————————————————————————	quæ, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quæ, ————————————————————————————————————

Remark 1. $Qu\bar{i}$ is sometimes used for the ablative singular, in all genders and rarely also for the ablative plural. To the ablatives quo, qua, qui, and qui-bus, cum is commonly annexed, cf. § 133, 4. Cicero uses $qu\bar{c}cum$ for $qu\bar{c}cum$, when an indefinite person is meant.

REM. 2. Queis (monosyllabic, § 9, R. 1), and quis are sometimes used in the dative and ablative plural for quibus. Cūjus and cui were anciently written quibus and quoi: and, instead of the genitive cūjus, a relative adjective cūjus, a, um, very rarely occurs.

- 3. Quicumque, (or quicunque), is declined like qui.
- Rem. 3. Qui is sometimes separated from cumque by the interposition of one or more words; as, que me cumque vocant terre. Virg. A similar separation sometimes occurs in the other compounds of cumque.
 - 4. Quisquis is thus declined :-

A	Singular.			Plural.
M.	F.	N.		<i>M</i> .
N. quis'-quis,	quis'-quis,†	quid'-quid,		quī'-q u,
Ac. quem'-quem,		quid'-quid,	D.	qui-bus'-qui-bus,
Ab. quō'-quō.	quā'-quā.	quō'-quō.	1	

REM. 4. Quicquid is sometimes used for quidquid. Quiqui for quisquis occurs in Plautus; and quidquid is used adjectively in Cato R. R. 48.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 137. Interrogative pronouns are such as serve to inquire which of a number of objects is intended.

They are

1. Quis is commonly used substantively; qui, adjectively. The interrogative qui is declined like qui the relative.

Quis is thus declined :-

Singular.			Plural.			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
G. D. Ac. V.	quis, cū'-jus, cui, quem, quō.	quæ, cū'-jŭs, cui, quam, quā.	quid, cū'-jŭs, cui, quid, quō.	qui, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quōs, qui'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quās, qui'-bŭs.	quæ, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quæ, qui'-bŭs.

Remark (1.) Quis is sometimes used by comic writers in the feminine, and even in the neuter. $\mathit{Quisnam}$, $\mathit{quisque}$ and $\mathit{quisquam}$ also occur as feminine.

REM. (2.) Qui is used for the ablative of quis in all genders, as it is for that of the relative qui. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

Rem. (3.) Quis and qui have sometimes the signification of the indefinite pronoun aliquis (some one, any one), especially after the conjunctions ec (for en), si, ne, neu, nisi, num; and after relatives, as quo, quanto, etc. Sometimes puis and qui are used in the sense of qualis? what sort?

2. The compounds quisnam and quinam have respectively the signification and declension of the interrogatives quis and qui. In the poets nam sometimes stands before quis. Virg. G. 4, 445.

3. Ecquis and numquis are declined and used like quis; but are sometimes adjectives. Virg. Ecl. 10, 28: Cic. Att. 13, 8.

Rem. (4.) Ecqua is sometimes found in the nominative singular feminine; and the neuter plural of numquis is numqua.

Rem. (5.) Equi and numqui also occur, declined like the interrogative qui, and, like that, used adjectively.

4. Ecquisnam and numquisnam are declined like ecquis; but are found only in the singular;—the former in the nominative in all genders, and in the ablative masculine; the latter in the nominative masculine and accusative neuter. In the nominative feminine and in the ablative, the former is used adjectively.

5. The interrogative cujus is also defective:-

	Singular	r.	Plural.		
М.	F.	N.	F.		
N. cū'-jŭs,	cū'-jă,	cū'-jum,	N. cū'-jæ,		
Ac. cū'-jum,	cū'-jam,		Ac. cū'-jās.		
Ab. —	cū'-iā.				

 Cūjās is declined like an adjective of one termination; cājas, cujātīs. See § 139, 4.

Nors. The interrogative pronouns are used not only in direct questions but in such dependent clauses also, as contain only an indirect question; as, g in the airect question, quis est? who is he? in the indirect, nesclo quis sit, I know not who he is. Qui, in this sense, is found for quis; as, qui sit apërit, he discloses who he is. Cf. § 255, N.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 138. Indefinite pronouns are such as denote an object in a general manner, without indicating a particular individual. They are

Aliquis, some one.
Siquis, if any.
Nequis, leat any.
Quispiam, some one.
Quidam, a certain one.
Quildam, a certain one.

NOTE. Siquis and nequis are commonly written separately, si quis and nequis: so also unus quisque.

1. Alimis is thus declined:-

Auquis is thus declined:—						
		Singular.				
	M.	F.	N.			
N. G. D. Ac.	al'-ĭ-quis, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quem,	al'-ĭ-qua, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quam,	al'-ĭ-quod, or -quid, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quod, or -quid,			
Ab	al'-ĭ-quo.	al'-ĭ-quā.	al'-ĭ-quo.			
		Plural.				
	М.	F.	N.			
N. G. D. Ac.	al'-ĭ-qui, al-i-quō'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus,* al'-ĭ-quos,	al'-ĭ-quæ, al-i-quā'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus, al'-ĭ-quas,	al'-ĭ-qua, al-i-quō'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus, al'-ĭ-qua,			
V. Ab .	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.			

^{*} Pronounced a-lik'-we-bus. See §§ 9, 4, and 21, 3

 Siquis and nēquis are declined in the same manner; out they sometimes have quæ in the fem. singular and neut. plural.

(a.) Aliquis, in the nominative singular masculine, is used both as a substantive and as an adjective;—aliqui, as an adjective, but is nearly obsolete. Alique in the fem. sing. occurs as an adjective in Lucretius, 4, 2, 64. Sigui, and nēqui, which are properly adjectives, are used also substantively for siguis and nēquis, and in the nominative singular masculine these two forms are equivalent. The ablatives aliqui and sigui also occur.

(b.) Aliquid, siquid, and nequid, like quid, are used substantively; aliquod,

etc., like quod, are used adjectively.

3. Quisque, quisquam, and quispiam, are declined like quis.

(a.) In the neuter singular, however, quisque has quodque, quidque, or quicque; quisquam has quidquam or quicquam; and quispiam has quodpiam, quidpiam, or quippiam. The forms quidque or quicque, quidqiam or quippiam are used substantively.

(b.) Quisquam wants the feminine (except quamquam, Plant. Mil. 4, 2, 68), and also the plural, and, with a few exceptions in Plantus, it is always used substantively, its place as an adjective being supplied by ulus. Quisiam is scarcely used in the plural, except in the nominative feminine, quaptam.

4. Unusquisque is compounded of unus and quisque, which are

often written separately, and both words are declined.

Thus unusquisque, uniuscujusque, unicuique, unumquemque, etc. The neuter is unumquodque, or unumquidque. It has no plural. Unumquidquid for unumquidque currs in Plautus and Lucretius.

5. Quidam, quilibet, and quieris, are declined like qui, except that they have both quod and quid in the neuter, the former used adjectively, the latter substantively.

Note. Quidam has usually n before d in the accusative singular and genitive plural; as, quendam, quorundam, etc. Cf. § 134, Note 1.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 139. 1. The possessive are derived from the genitives of the substantive pronouns, and of *quis*, and designate something belonging to their primitives.

They are meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and cūjus. Meus, tuus, and suus, are declined like bönus; but meus has in the vocative singular masculine mi, and very rarely meus. Cf. § 105, R. 3. In late writers mi occurs also in the feminine and neuter.

Cūjus also is declined like bŏnus; but is defective. See § 137,5.
 It occurs only in early Latin and in legal phraseology.

3. Noster and vester are declined like piger. See § 106.

REMARK 1. The terminations pte and met intensive are sometimes annexed to possessive pronouns, especially to the ablative singular; as, supple poulding by its own weight; supple manu, by his own hand. So nostrapte culpā is unuple amācum; meāmet culpā. The suffix met is usually followed by ipse; as, Hannibal suāmet ipse fraude captus abiit. Liv.; but Sallust has meamet facta dictre.

REM. 2. Suns, like its primitive sui, has always a reflexive signification, refer up to the subject of the sentence. Mens, thus, noster, and rester, are also hased reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second

person. See § 132, 4.

PATRIAL PRONOUNS.

- (a.) These are nostras and cūjas. See §§ 100, 2, and 128, 6. They are declined like adjectives of one termination; as, nostras, nostrātis, but both are defective.
- (b.) Nostras is found in the nominative and genitive singular, in the nominative plural, (masc. and fem., nostrātes, neut. nostratia), and in the ablative, (nostratībus). Cūjas or quojas occurs in the nominative, genitive and accusative (cujūtem masc.) singular, and in the nominative plural, mase. (cujātes). Cf. § 137, 6 .- Nostrātis and cujātis (or quojātis) also occur in the nominative.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

- 5. To the adjective pronouns may be added certain adjectives of so general a meaning, that they partake, in some degree, or the character of pronouns. Of this kind are :-
- (1.) (a.) Alius, ullus, nullus, and nonnullus, which answer to the question, who?
- (b.) Alter, neuter, alteruter, utervis, and uterlibet, which answer to the question, ŭter? which of two?
- (2.) Adjectives denoting quality, size, or number, in a general way. These stand in relation to one another, and are hence called correlatives.

Remark. The relatives and interrogatives of this class begin with qu, and are alike in form. The indefinites are formed from the relatives by prefixing ali. The demonstratives begin with t, and are sometimes strengthened by dem. A general relative, having a meaning more general than the relative, is formed by doubling the simple relative, or by affixing to it the termination cumque. A general indefinite is formed by annexing libet or vis to the relative.

(3.) Their mutual relation is denoted by the following table, with which may be compared the adverbial correlatives, § 191, R. 1.

Relat. general.

Indefin.

Indef genera ..

quālis?	tālis,	quans,	qualis-qualis, qualiscumque,)	qualislibet,	
quantus?	tantus,	quantus,	quantus-quantus,	aliquantus,	quantuslībet	
quŏt?	töt, totīdem,	quŏt,	quot-quot,	alīquot,	quotlibet,	
quŏtus?	tŏtus,	quŏtus,	quotuscumque,	(aliquotus),		
Diminutives.						

quantălus? tantălus. quantuluscumque. aliquantulum. ----

Note 1. The suffix cumque, which is used in forming general relatives, is composed of the relative adverb cum (quum) and the suffix que, expressive of universality, as in quasque and in adverbs, (see § 191). Cumque, therefore, originally signified 'whenever.' When attached to a relative, whether a pronoun, adjective, or adverb, it renders the relative meaning more general; as, qui, who; quicumque, whoever; or, every one who.

Note 2. Cujusmódi is sometimes used for qualis, and hujusmódi, istiusmódi ejusmódi and ejusderanódi for tälis. Cf. § 134, R. 5.

Interrog. Demonstr. Relat.

VERBS.

- § 140. A verb is a word by which something is affirmed of a person or thing.
- That of which any thing is affirmed is called the subject of the verb. (2.) That which is affirmed of the subject is called the predicate. Cf. § 201.
- 3. A verb either expresses an action or state; as, puer legit, the boy reads; aqua calet, the water is warm;—or it connects an attribute with a subject; as, terra est rotunda, the earth is round.
- 4. All verbs belong to the former of these classes, except sum, I am, the most common use of which is, to connect an attribute with a subject. When so nsed, it is called the copāla.

§ 141. Verbs are either active or neuter.

Note. Active and neuter verbs are sometimes called transitive and intransitive; and verbs of motion are by some grammarians divided into active-transitive and active-intransitive, according as they require, or do not require, an object after them.

- I. An active or transitive verb expresses such an action as requires the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, amo te, I love thee; sequitur consulem, he follows the consul-
- II. A neuter or intransitive verb expresses such an action or state, as does not require the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, equus currit, the horse runs; gradior, I walk.

REMARK 1. Many verbs, in Latin, are considered as neuter, which are usually translated into English by active verbs. Thus indulgeo, I indulge, noceo. I hurt, pureo, I obey, are reckoned among neuter verbs. In strictness, such Latin verbs denote rather a state than an action, and their sense would be more exactly expressed by the verb to be with an adjective; as, 'I am indulgent, I am hurfull,' etc. Some verbs in Latin, which do not usually take an object after them, are yet active, since the object is omitted by ellipsis. Thus credo properly signifies to intrust, and, in this sense, takes an object; as, credo this saluten mean, I intrust my safety to you; but by ellipsis it usually means to believe; as, 'crede mith, believe me.

To verbs belong voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

VOICES.

- (a.) Voice, in verbs, is the form by which they denote the relation of the agent to the action of the verb.
- (b.) Most active Latin verbs have, for this purpose, two forms which are called the active and passive voices.
- 1. A verb in the active voice represents the agent as acting upon some person or thirg, called the object; as, puer legit his trum, the toy is reading a book.

- 2. A verb in the passive voice represents the object as actea upon by the agent; as, liber legitur a puero, a book is read by the boy.
- Rem. 2. By comparing the two preceding examples, it will be seen that they have the same meaning. The passive voice may thus be substituted at pleasure for the active, by making the object of the active the subject of the passive, and placing the subject of the active in the ablative case, with or without the preposition a or ab, according as it is a voluntary or involuntary agent. The active form is used to direct the attention especially to the agent as acting; the passive, chiefly to exhibit the object as acted upon. In the one case the object, in the other the agent, is frequently omitted, and left indefinite; as, puer legit, the boy is reading, scil. librum, libras, etc., a book, a letter, etc.; virtus loualitur, virtue is praised, scil. ab hominibus, by men.

The two voices are distinguished from each other by peculiar terminations. Cf. § 152.

- § 142. 1. Neuter verbs have, in general, only the form of the active voice. They are, however, sometimes used impersonally in the passive voice. See § 184, 2.
- 2. The nenter verbs audeo, I dare, fido, I trust, gaudeo, I rejoice, and soleo, I am wont, have the passive form in the perfect and its cognate tenses; as ausus sum, I dared. Hence these verbs are called neuter passives, or semi-deponents.
- 3. The neuter verbs vapulo, I am beaten, and veneo, I am sold, have an active form, but a passive meaning, and are hence called neutral passives.
- 4. (a.) Deponent verbs have a transitive or intransitive signification with only the passive form. They are called deponent verbs, from depono, to lay aside, as having laid aside their active form, and their passive signification; as, sequor, I follow; morior, I die.
- (A) Some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive signification, especially in the perfect participle. These are sometimes called common verbs. Gf. § 162, 17.

MOODS.

- § 143. (a.) Moods (or modes) are forms of the verb, which denote the relation of the action or state, expressed by the verb, to the mind of the speaker or to some other action.
- (b.) Latin verbs have four moods—the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and the infinitive.
- 1. The indicative mood is used in independent and absolute assertions and inquiries; as, amo, I love; audisne? dost thou hear?
- The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind; as, si me obsecret, redibo; if he entreat me, I will return.
- 3. The *imperative* mood is used in commanding, exhorting, or entreating; as, ama, 1: re thou; amanto, they shall love.

4. The infinitive mood is used to denote an action or state in definitely, without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject; as, virtus est vitium fugere, to shun vice is a virtue.

TENSES.

- § 144. Tenses are forms of the verb, denoting the time of the action or state expressed by the verb.
- 1. Time admits of a threefold division, into present, past and future; and, in each of these times, an action may be represented either as going on, or as completed. From these two divisions arise the six tenses of a Latin verb, each of which is distinguished by its peculiar terminations.
- 2. They are called the present, imperfect, future, perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses.

Present action amo, I love, or an loving; Present tense.
Future pleted; amabam, I was loving; Imperfect tense.
amaba, I shall love, or be loving; Future tense.

action amavi, I have loved; Perfect tense. Present (amaveram, I had loved; Pluperfect tense. com-

Future pleted; amavero, I shall have loved; Future perfect tense.

3. There is the same number of tenses in the passive voice, in which actions not completed are represented by simple forms of the verb, and those which are completed by compound forms.

Present (action) amor, I am loved; Present tense.

Past { not com- } amābar, I was loved; Imperfect tense. Future { pleted; } amābor, I shall be loved; Future tense.

- Present action com-Past com-Future pleted; amātus sum, or fui, I have been loved; Perfect tense. amātus eran, or fuērum, I had been loved; Pluperfect.
- § 145. I. The present tense represents an action as now going on, and not completed; as, amo, I love, or am loving.
- 1. Any existing custom, or general truth, may be expressed by this tense as, apud Parthos, signum datur tympano; among the Parthians, the signal is given by a drum. A general truth is sometimes also expressed by the perfect.
- 2. The present tense may also denote an action which has existed for some time, and which still exists; as, tot annos bella gero; for so many years I have waged, and am still waging war.
- 3. The present tense is often in narration used for the perfect indefinite. It is then called the historical present; as, desiliunt ex equis, provolant in primum; they dismout, they fly forward to the front.
- II. The imperfect tense represents an action as going on at some past time, but not then completed; as, amabam, I was loving.
- 1. The imperfect sometimes denotes repeated or customary past action; as, legebam, I was wont to read.
- 2. It may also denote an action which had existed for some t me, and which was still existing at a certain past time; as, audiebat jamdudum verba; he had long heard, and was still hearing the words.

- In letters, and with reference not to the time of their being written, but to that of their being read, the imperfect is sometimes used for the present as, expectabam, I was expecting, (i. e. when I wrote).
- 4. The imperfect also sometimes denotes the intending, preparing, or attempting to act at a definite past time.
- III. The future tense denotes that an action will be going on hereafter, but without reference to its completion; as, amābo, I shall love, or shall be loving.
- IV. The perfect tense represents an action either as just completed, or as completed in some indefinite past time; as, amāvi, I have loved, or I loved.

REMARK. In the former sense, it is called the perfect definite; in the latter, the perfect indefinite, historical perfect, or agrist.

- V. The pluperfect tense represents a past action as completed, at or before the time of some other past action or event; as, litteras scripseram, quum nuncius vēnit; I had written the letter, when the messenger arrived.
- VI. The future perfect tense denotes that an action will be perpleted, at or before the time of some other future action or event; as, quum cœnavěro, proficiscar; when I shall have supped, I will go.

Norm 1. This tense is often, but improperly, called the future subjunctive. It has the signification of the indicative mood, and corresponds to the secona future in English.

NOTE 2. The imperfect, historical perfect, and pluperfect tenses are sometimes called *preterites* or the *preterite tenses*.

Norg 3. The present, imperfect, and future tenses passive, in English, do not express the exact sense of those tenses in Latin, as denoting an action which is, was, or will be, going on at a certain time. Thus laudor signifies, not '1 am praised,' but '1 am in the act of being praised,' or, if such an expression is admissible, '1 am being praised.'

REMARK 1. The six tenses above enumerated are found only in the indicative mood.

REM. 2. The subjunctive mood, in the regular conjugation, has the present and past, but no future tenses.

- Nors 4. The tenses of the subjunctive mood have less definiteness of meaning, in regard to time, than those of the indicative. Thus the present and perfect, besides their common signs, may or can, may have or can have, must, in certain connections, be trunslated by might, could, would, or should; might have, could have, etc. The tenses of this mood must often, also, be translated by the corres; onding tenses of the indicative. For a more particular account if the signification of each of the tenses of the subjunctive mood, see § 250.
- REM. 3. The imperative mood has two tenses—a present and a future; the former for that which is to be done at once, and the latter for that which is to be done in future.
- REM. 4. The infinitive mood has three tenses—the present, the perfect, and the future; the first of which denotes an incomplete, the second a completed action, and the last an action to be performed.

NUMBERS.

§ 146. Number, in verbs, is the form by which is e unity of plurality of their subject is denoted. Hence verbs, like nouns, have two numbers—the singular and the plural. Cf. § 35, 1.

PERSONS.

- § 147. Person, in verbs, is the form by which they denote he person of their subject. Hence in each number there are three persons—the first, second, and third. Cf. § 35, 2.
- The imperative present has only the second person in both numbers. The imperative future has in each number the second and third persons, but in the singular they have both the same form, to in the active, an 1 tor in the passive voice.
- As the signification of the infinitive mood is not limited to any subject, it admits no change to express either number or person.
- 3. The following are the terminations of the different persons of each number, in the indicative and subjunctive moods, in both voices:—

	Active.		Passive.			
Person.	1.	2.	3.	1.	2.	3.
	o, i, or m,		t;	r,	ris,	tur;
Plural.	mus,	tis,	nt.	mur,	mĭni,	ntur

These may be called personal terminations.

REMARK 1. The perfect indicative active is irregular in the second person singular and plural, which end in sti and sits, and in one of the forms of the third person plural, which ends in re.

REM. 2. The passive form above given belongs to the simple tenses only.

REM. 3. The pronouns of the first and second persons, eqo, nos; tu and cos, are seldom expressed in Latin as subjects of a finite verb, the several persons being sufficiently distinguished by the terminations of the verb.

PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

- § 148. 1. A participle is a word derived from a verb, and partaking of its meaning, but having the form of an adjective.
- (1.) Like a verb, it has different voices and tenses; like an adjective, it has declension* and gender; and like both, it has two numbers.
- (2.) Active verbs have usually four participles—two in the active voice, a present and a future; as, amans, loving; amatūrus, about to love;—and two in the passive voice, a perfect and a future; as, amātus, loved. or having been loved; amandus, to be loved.

- (3.) Neuter verbs have usually only the participles of the active voice.
- (4.) Deponent verbs, both active and neuter, may have the participles of both voices.
- (a.) Gerunds are verbal nouns, used only in the oblique cases, and expressing the action or state of the verb; as, amandi, of loving, etc.
- (b.) Like other abstract nouns, they are found only in the singular number, and by their cases supply the place of a declinable present infinitive active.
- Supines also are verbal nouns of the fourth declension in the accusative and ablative singular; as, amātum, to love; amātu, to be loved.

REMARK. These also serve in certain connections to supply the place of the infinitive present both active and passive. The supine in un is called the *former* supine; that in u, the *latter*. The former is commonly used in an active, the latter in a passive sense.

CONJUGATION.

- § 149. 1. The conjugation of a verb is the regular formation and arrangement of its several parts, according to their voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.
- 2. There are four conjugations, which are characterized by the yowel before re in the present of the infinitive active.

In the first conjugation, it is a long; In the second, . . . ē long; In the third, ě short; In the fourth, ī long.

EXCEPTION. Do, dare, to give, and such of its compounds as are of the first conjugation, have a short before re.

- § 150. A verb, like a noun, consists of two parts—the root, and the termination. Cf. § 40, R. 10.
- 1. The first or general root of a verb consists of those letters that are found in every part. This root may always be found by removing the termination of the present infinitive.
- There are also two special roots, the first of which is found in the perfect, and is called the second root; the other, found in the supine or perfect participle, is called the third root.
- 3. In regular verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, the *second* root is formed by adding, respectively, $\bar{a}v$, u, and $\bar{i}v$, to the *general* root; and the *third* root by a similar addition of $\bar{a}t$, $\bar{i}t$, and $\bar{i}t$.

REMARK. Many verbs, in each of the conjugations, form their second and third roots irregularly.

4. In the third conjugation, the second root either is the same as the first, or is formed from it by adding s; the third root is formed by adding t. See § 171.

Note. In the second and fourth conjugations, e and i before o are considered as belonging not to the root, but to the termination. In verbs whose second or third roots are formed irregularly, the general root often undergoes some change in the parts derived from them.

- 5. The vowel which unites the general root with the remaining letters of the verb, is called the *connecting* vowel. Each conjugation, except the third, is, in a great degree, distinguished by a peculiar connecting vowel, which is the same as characterizes the infinitives. See § 149, 2.
- (a.) In the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is generally \(\ell\) or t. In the second and fourth conjugations, and in verbs in io of the third, a second connecting vowel is sometimes added to that which characterizes the conjugation; as, a in doceant, u in capiunt, etc.
- (b) In verbs whose second and third roots are formed irregularly, the connecting vowel often disappears, or is changed in the parts derived from those roots; but it is almost always found in the parts derived from the first root.
- § 151. 1. From the *first* root are derived, in each voice, the present, imperfect, and future indicative; the present and imperfect subjunctive; the imperative, and the present infinitive. From this root are derived also the present participle, the gerund, and the future participle passive.
- From the second root are derived, in the active voice, the per fect, pluperfect, and future perfect indicative; the perfect and plu perfect subjunctive, and the perfect infinitive.
- 3. (a.) From the third root are derived, in the active voice, the supine in um, and the future participle; the latter of which, with the verb esse, constitutes the future infinitive active.
- (b.) From this root are derived, in the passive voice, the supine in u, and the perfect participle; from the latter of which, with the verb sum, are formed all the tenses which in the active are derived from the second root. The future infinitive passive is formed from the supine in um, and īri, the present infinitive passive of the verb eo, to go.
- 4. The present and perfect indicative, the supine in um, and the present infinitive, are called the principal parts of the verb, because from the first three the several roots are ascertained, and from the last, the characteristic vowel of the conjugation. In the passive voice, the principal parts are the present indicative and infinitive, and the perfect participle.

NOTE. As the supine in um is wanting in most verbs, the third root must often be determined from the perfect participle, or the future participle active.

§ 152. The following table exhibits a connected view of the verbal terminations, in all the conjugations. By annexing these to the several roots, all the parts of a verb may be formed.

serminations added to the First Root.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PASSIVE VOICE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

a	-antŭr. -entŭr. -untŭr. -inntŭr.	-abantŭr. -ebantŭr. -ebantŭr. -iebantŭr.	-abuntŭr. -ebuntŭr. -entūr. -ientŭr.		entŭr. eantŭr. -antŭr.
PLURAL. Persons.	-amini, -emini, -imini, -imini,	-abamini, -ebamini, -ebamini, -iebamini,	-abimini, -ebimini, -emini, -iemini,		-ēmini, -eāmini, -āmini, -iāmini,
-	-āmŭr, -ēmŭr, -imŭr, -imŭr,	-abāmŭr, -ebāmŭr, -ebāmŭr, -îebāmŭr,	-abīmŭr, -ebīmŭr, -ēmūr, -iēmūr,		-emŭr, -eamŭr, -amŭr, -iamŭr,
တ်	-ātūr; -ētūr; -Itūr; -ītūr;	-abātūr; -ebātūr; -ebātūr; -iebātūr;	-abītūr; -ebītūr; -ētūr; -iētūr;		-ētŭr; -eatŭr; -ātŭr; -iātŭr;
se. Singular, Persons. 2.	or -ārĕ, or -ērĕ, or -èrĕ, or -b·ĕ,	or -abārč, or -ebārč, or -ebārč, or -iebārč,	or -abčrě, or -eběrč, or -ērě, or -iērě,		or ērė, or eārė, or iūrė,
ENSE. SINGULAI Persons. 2.	-ārīs -ēris -ērīs -īrīs	crabārīs -ebārīs -iebārīs	 -aběrís -eběrís -ērís -iērís	MOOD KNSE.	-ērīs -eārīs -ārīs -iārīs
Present Tense. Sin 7	2 ŏr, 2 ĕŏr, 4 iŏr,	IMPERPECT. 1abir, -a 2ëbir, -e 8ëbir, -e 4iëbir, -i	FUTURE 1abor, 2ebor, 3ăr, 4iăr,	SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT TE	1ĕr, 2eŭr, 8ăr, 4iăr,
 	-ant. -ent. -unt.	-ābant. -ēbant. -iēbant.	-ābunt. -ēbunt. -ent.	SUBJ	-ent. -eant. -ant.
PLURAL. Persons. 2.	-ātīs, -ētīs, -ītīs, -ītīs,	-abātīs, -ebātīs, -ebātīs, -iebātīs,	-abitis, -ebitis, -ētis, -iētis,		-ētīs, -eātīs, -ātīs, -iātīs,
	-āmŭs, -ēmŭs, -ľmŭs, -īmŭs,	-abāroŭs, -ebāmŭs, -ebāmŭs, -iebāmŭs,	-abímŭs, -ebímŭs, -ēműs, -iēmŭs,		-ēmŭs, -eāmŭs, -amūs, -iāmŭs,
	###; ##; ##;	-abat; -ebat; -ebat; -iebat;	-abit; -ebit; -et; -ièt;		eat; eat; ist:
	-0, -ās, -e0, -ēs, -0, -ĭs, -io, -īs,	-ābās, -ēbās, -ēbās, -iēbās,	-ābis, -ēbis, -ēs, -iēs,		-ēs, -eās, -ās,
	Conjue Gallon.	1ābam, 2ēbam, 8ēbam, 4iēbam,	1abo, 2ebo, 8am, 4lam,		1em, 2eam, 8am, 4iam,

PART. Perf. -us. INF. Fut. -um iri.

THIRD ROOT. INF. Fut. -ūrūs esse. PART. Fut. -ūrūs. F. SUP. -um.

152.			VERBS
-arentür. -erentür. -erentür.		-antŏr. -entŏr. -untŏr. -iuntŏr.	andŭs, endŭs, endŭs, iendŭs.
-aremini, -eremini, -eremini, -iremini,		(-abamini,) (-ebimini,) (-emini,) (-iemini,)	PART. 2enc Fut. 8enc 4ien
arēmūr, erēmūr, erēmūr, irēmūr,		-ātŏr, -ētŏr, -ītŏr, -ītŏr,	PA
-arētūr; -erētūr; -erētūr; -hētūr;		Future. - tor, - tor, - tor,	N. (2ën', 4in', -in'.
r -arērě, n -erēre, n -erērě, n -irerê,		-amînî. -emînî. -imînî. -imînî.	INFIN. Pres.
-arēris or -erēris or -erēris or -irēris or	MOOD.	1arĕ, 2ērĕ, 8ĕrĕ, 4īrĕ,	
1ārēr, 2ērēr, 3èrēr, 4īrēr,	RATIVE	Present.	1andī, 2endī, 3endī, 4iendī,
ārent. -ērent. -ērent.	IMPE	-anto. -ento. -unto.	GER. (2. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8. 8.
-arēffs, -erēffs, -rēffs,		-atūtě, -etūtě, -itūtě, -itūtě,	1ans, 2ens, 3ens, 4iens.
arēmūs, erēmūs, erēmūs		o, -ato; o, -ēto; o, -ito; o, -ito;	$\begin{array}{c} \text{PART.} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1. \\ 2. \\ Pres. \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} 3. \\ 4. \end{array}$
arët, -erët; -erët; -irët;		Future.	ir ir ir ir ir ir ir ir ir ir ir ir ir i
-arēs, -ērēs, -rēs,		atě.	NFIN. 2. 8. 8. 8.
1arem, 2ērem, 8ĕrem, 4frem,		Present.	NI

IMPERFECT.

Norg. Verbs in io of the third conjugation have two connecting vowels in all the parts in which they occur in verbs of the fourth conjugation, and these vowels are the same in both.

Terminations added to the Second and Third Roots.

The terminations of the tenses which are formed from the second and third roots, are the same in all the conjugations. Thus:-PASSIVE VOICE.-THIRD ROOF. INDICATIVE MOOD. ACTIVE VOICE .-- SECOND ROOT.

	or fuisff, etc.	or fueras, eto.	or fuèris, etc.		-us sis or fueris, etc.	or fuissēs, etc.	
	an és	-ùs ĕrês	-ŭs eris		-ŭs sis	-ŭs essēs	or fuisse.
Singular.	er fin,	or fueram,	or fuero,		ds sim or fuèrim,	or fuissem,	i. Perfus esse or fuissa.
	-ŭs sun	-ŭs ĕram	-ŭs ĕro		-ds sim	-ŭs essem	INFIN. F
	Perf.	Plup.	Fut. perf.	MOOD.	Perf.	Plup.	
	-ërunt or -ërë.	-erant.	-črint.	SUBJUNCTIVE	-ĕrint.	-issent.	
Plural.	-18113,	-erātis,	-èritis,	01	-ĕritĭs,	-issētīs,	ě,
	-ímŭs,	-cramus,	-èrimŭs,		-ĕrimŭs,	-issēmūs,	INTRIN. Perfisaa.
	It;	erat;	-ĕrĭt;		-ĕrĭt;	-isset;	NIRKI
ngular.	-isti,	-črās,	-ěrís,		-ěrís,	-issēs,	
S	÷	-ĕram,	-èro,		-èrim.	-issem.	
	Perf.	Plup.	Fut. perf.		Perf.	Plup.	

REMARK 1. In analyzing a verb, the voice, person, and number, are ascertaned by the personal terminations. See § 147, 3. The conjugation, mod, and tense, are, in general, determined by the letter or letters which intervene between the root of the verb and the personal terminations. Thus in amabamus, mus denotes that the verb is of the act. we voice, plural number, and first person; ba denotes that it is of the indicative mood, imperfect tense; and the connecting vowel a determines it to be of the first conjugation. So in amaremini, mini denotes the passive voice, plural number, and second person; re, the subjunctive mood, imperfect tense; and a, as before, the first conjugation.

REM. 2. Sometimes, the part between the root of the verb and the personal termination, does not precisely determine the conjugation, mood, and tense, but only within certain limits. In such cases, the conjugation may be learned, by finding the present tense in the dictionary, and if two forms are alike in the same conjugation, they can only be distinguished by the sense. Thus amemus and docimus have the same termination; but, as amo is of the first, and doci of the second conjugation, the former is determined to be the subjunctive, the latter the indicative, present. Regar may be either the future indicative, or the present subjunctive-bilimus either the present or the perfect indicative.

§ 153. Sum, I am, is called an auxiliary verb, because it is used, in conjunction with participles, to supply the want of simple forms in other verbs. From its denoting existence, it is sometimes called the substantine verb.

REMARK. Sum is very irregular in those parts which, in other verbs, are formed from the first root. Its imperfect and future tenses, except in the third person plural of the latter, have the form of a pluperfect and future perfect. It is thus conjugated:-

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Fut. Part. Sum, es'-sĕ. fu'-ī. fŭ'-tū'-rŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

£ { 1. su..., 2. ĕs, thou ar 3. est, he is; (1. sum, I am, sŭ'-mŭs, we are, 2. ĕs, thou art,* es'-tĭs, ye† are, sunt, they are.

Imperfect.

 ě'-ram, I was, ĕ-rā'-mŭs, we were,

2. ĕ'-rās, thou wast, ĕ-rā'-tĭs, ye were, 3. ĕ'-răt, he was ; ĕ'-rant, they were.

Future. shall, or will.

 ě'-rō, I shall be, ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs, we shall be,

2. e'-ris, thou wilt be, ěr'-ĭ-tis, ye will be, 3. e'-rit, he will be: ĕ'-runt, they will be.

† The plural pronoun of the second person is either ye or you.

In the second person singular in English, the plural form you is commonly used except in solemn discourse; as, tu es, you are.

Perfect. have been, or was.

1. fu'-i, I have been,

2. fu-is'-ti, thou hast been,

3. fu'-it, he has been;

fu'-i-mus, we have been,

fu-is'-tis, ye have been, fu-e'-runt or re, they have hees.

Pluperfect.

 fu'-ĕ-ram, I had been, 2. fu'-ĕ-rās, thou hadst been,

fu'-ĕ-răt, he had been;

fu-e-rā'-mus, we had been, fu-e-rā'-tīs, ye had been, fu'-ĕ-rant, they had been.

Future Perfect. shall or will have.

fu'-ĕ-rŏ, I shall have been,

fu'-ĕ-rĭs, thou wilt have been, fu'-ĕ-rĭt, he will have been;

fu-er'-ĭ-mus, we shall have been fu-er'-ī-tis, ye will have been,

fu'-ĕ-rint, they will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can.

1. sim, I may be, 2. sīs, thou mayst be,

3. sit, he may be

sī'-mŭs, we may be, sī'-tĭs, ye may be, sint, they may be.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

1. es'-sem, I would be,

2. es'-sēs, thou wouldst be, 3. es'-set, he would be;

es-sē'-mus, we would be, es-sē'-tis, ye would be,

es'-sent, they would be.

Perfect.

fu'-ĕ-rim, I may have been,

2. fu'-ĕ-rīs, thou mayst have been, fu'-ĕ-rĭt, he may have been;

fu-ĕr'-ī-mus, we may have been, fu-er'-i-tis, ye may have been,

fu'-ĕ-rint, they may have been.

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

1. fu-is'-sem, I would have been, 2. fu-is'-ses, thou wouldst have been, fu-is-se'-tis, ye would have been, 3. fu-is'-set, he would have been;

fu-is-sē'-mus, we would have been, fu-is'-sent, they would have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 1. ĕs, be thou, Fut. 2. es'-to, thou shalt be 3. es'-tŏ, let him be;

es'-tĕ, be ye. es-tō'-tĕ, ye shall be,

sun'-tŏ, let them be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. es'-se, to be.

Perfect. fu-is'-se, to have been.

Future. fŭ-tū'-rŭs (ă, um), es'-sĕ, or fŏ'-rĕ, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Future. fŭ-tū'-rus, a, um about to be.

REMARK 1. A present participle ens seems to have been anciently in use, and is still found in the compounds absens, præsens, and potens.

Rem. 2. The perfect fui, and its derivative tenses, are formed from an obsolete fuo, whence come also the participle futurus, an old subjunctive present fuam, fuas, fuat; —, —, fuant, and the forms fuvinus, perf. ind., fuverint, perf. subj., and fuvisset, plup. subj.

Rem. 3. From fuo appear also to be derived the following:-

Subi. imperf. fo'-rem, fo'-res, fo'-ret; - fo'-rent. Inf. pres.

These forms seem to have been contracted from fuerem, etc., and fuere. Forem is equivalent in meaning to essem, but the infinitive fore has, in most cases, acquired a future signification, equivalent to futurus esse.

REM. 4. Siem, sies, siet, sient, for sim, sis, sit, sint, are found in ancient writers, as are also escit for erit, escunt for erunt, esc, esetis, and esent, for esse, essetis, and essent.

Rem. 5. Like sum are conjugated its compounds, absum, adsum, dēsum, insum, intersum, obsum, præsum, subsum, and supersum.

Rem. 6. Prosum, from the old form prod for pro, and sum, has d after pro, when the simple verb begins with e; as,

> Ind. pres. pro'-sum, prod'-es, prod'-est, etc. - imperf. prod'-ĕ-ram, prod'-ĕ-rās, etc.

Rem. 7. (a.) Possum is compounded of potis, able, and sum. They are sometimes written separately, and then potis is the same in all genders and numbers.

(b.) In composition, is is omitted in potis, and t, as in other cases, coming before s, is changed into s. In the infinitive, and imperfect subjunctive, es of the simple verb is dropped, as is also f at the beginning of the second root. In every other respect possum is conjugated like sum, wherever it is found; but the imperative, and the parts derived from the third root, are wanting.

> Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Pos'-sum. pos'-sĕ. pŏt'-u-i. I can, or I am able.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE. Present.

pos'-sum, po'-test; pos'-sim, pos'-sīs, pos'-sīt; pos'-su-mus, po-tes'-tis, pos'-sunt.

pos-sī'-mus, pos-sī'-tīs, pos'-sint.

Imperfect.

pŏt'-ĕ-ram, pot'-ĕ-rās, pot'-ĕ-răt; pos'-sem, pos'-sēs, pos'-sět; pot-e-ra'-mus, -e-ra'-tis, -e-rant. pos-se'-mus, -se'-tis, pos'-sent.

Future.

pŏt'-ē-rō, pŏt'-ē-rīs, pŏt'-ē-rīt; po-ter'-i-mus, po-ter'-i-tis, pot'-e-runt.

Perfect.

pŏt'-u-ī, pŏt-u-is'tī, pŏt'-u-It; pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rim, -ĕ-rǐt; pŏ-tu'-l-mūs, -is'-tīs, -ĕ-runt or -ē'rĕ. pŏt-u-ĕr'-ī-mūs, -i-tīs, -ĕ-rint.

Pluperfect.

pŏ-tu'-ĕ-ram, -ĕ-rās, -ĕ-răt; pot-u-e-ra'-mus, -e-ra'-tis, -e-rant.

pŏt-u-is'-sem, -is'-sēs, -is'-sēt; pŏt-u-is-sē'-mūs, -is-sē'-tīs, -is'-sent.

Future Perfect.

pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rð, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rfs, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rīt; pŏt-u-ĕr'-f-mŭs, pŏt-u-ĕr'-f-tis, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rint.

(No Imperative.)

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVE. po'-tens, able.

Pres. pos'-sě. Perf. pŏt-u-is'-sě.

NOTE. The following forms are also found; potissum for possum, potessunt for possunt, potessim and possiem for possim, possies, possiet and potessit for possie and possit, potessem for possem, potesse for posse, and before a passive infinitive the passive forms potestur for potest, poteratur for poterat, and possitur for posset.—Potis and pote without est are sometimes used for potest.

§ 155. FIRST CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. A'-mŏ. ă-mā'-rĕ.

Perf. Ind. ă-mā'-vi,

Supine. ă-mā'-tum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. love, do love, am loving.

Sing. ă'-mō, ă'-mās. thou lovest. ă'-măt. he loves;

Plur. ă-mā'-mŭs. we love. ă-mā'-tĭs, ye love, ă'-mant, they love.

Imperfect. was loving, loved, did love.

Sing. ă-mā'-bam, I was loving, ă-mā'-bās, thou wast loving,

ă-mā'-băt, he was loving; Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭs, we were loving, ăm-ā-bā'-tĭs. ye were loving, ă-mā'-bant. they were loving.

Future. shall, or will.

Sing. ă-mā'-bō, I shall love, ă-mā'-bis. thou wilt love. ă-mā'-bit, he will love;

Plur. ă-māb'-i-mus, we shall love, ă-māb'-i-tis. ye will love.

à-mā'-bunt. they will love.

Perfect. loved, or have loved.

Pluperfect. had.

Sing. ă-māv'-ē-ram, ă-māv'-ē-rās, ă-māv'-ē-rāt, Plur. ă-māv-ē-rā'-mŭs, ă-māv-ē-rā'-tīs, ă-māv'-ē-rant, then had loved, we had loved, ye had loved, they had loved,

Future Perfect. shall, or will have.

Sing. ă-māv'-ē-rō,

à-māv'-ē-rīs,

à-māv'-ē-rīs,

he will have loved,

plur. ăm-ā-vēr'-ī-mūs,

à-mā-vēr'-ī-tīs,

à-māv'-ē-rint,

he will have loved,

ye will have loved,

ye will have loved,

ye will have loved,

ye will have loved,

he will have loved,

ye will have loved,

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD,

Present. may, or can.

Sing. ă'-mem, I may love, ă'-mēs, thou mayst love, a'-mēt, he may love; Plur. ă-mē'-mš, we may love, a'-me'-tls, ye may love, a'-ment, they may love.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

Sing. ă-mā'-rem,

ā-mā'-rēs,

ă-mā'-rēt,

Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mūs,

ăm-ā-rē'-tis,

ă-mā'-rent,

they would love,

ye would love,

they would love,

they would love.

Perfect. may, or can have.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-rim,

ă-māv'-ē-ris,

ă-māv'-ē-rit,

Plur. ăm-ā-vēr'-Ī-tīs,

ăm-ā-vēr'-Ī-tīs,

ăm-ā-vēr'-Ī-tīs,

the may have loved,

ye may have loved,

ye may have loved,

ye may have loved,

hey may have loved,

ye may have loved,

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

Sing. ăm-ā-vis'-sem, I would have loved, am-ā-vis'-sēt, thou wouldst have loved; he would have loved; we would have loved; we would have loved, am-ā-vis-sē'-tīs, ye would have loved, am-ā-vis'-sent, they would have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Sing. &'-mā, love thou;
Plur. ā-mā'-tĕ, love ye.
Fut. Sing. ă-mā'-tŏ, thou shalt love,
ā-mā'-tŏ, ye shall love;
ā-man'-tŏ, they shall love,
s-man'-tŏ, they shall love,

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rĕ, to love.
Perfect. ăm-ā-vis'-sĕ, to have loved.
Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rūs, (ă, um,) es'-sĕ, to be about to love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. ă'-mans, loving. Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rūs, ă, um, about to love.

GERUND.

G. ă-man'-di, of loving,
D. ă-man'-dŏ, for loving,
Ac. ă-man'-dum, loving,
Ab. ă-man'-dŏ, by loving.

SUPINE.

Former. ă-mā'-tum, to love.

§ 156. PASSIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.

A'-mor, ă-mā'-ri, ă-mā'-tŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. am.

Sing. ă'-mŏr, I am loved. ă-mā'-ris or -rě, thou art loved, ă-mā'-túr, he is loved; Plur. ă-mā'-mŭr, we are loved, ye are loved, ă-mām'-i-ni, ă-man'-tŭr. they are loved.

Imperfect. was.

Sing. ă-mā'-băr, I was loved. ăm-ā-bā'-ris or -rě. thou wast loved, he was loved; ăm-ā-bā'-tŭr, we were loved, Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭr, ăm-ā-bām'-I-nī. ye were loved, ăm-ā-ban'-tŭr, they were loved.

Future. shall, or will be.

Sing. ă-mā'-bŏr, I shall be loved, ă-māb'-ĕ-ris or -rĕ, thou wilt be loved. ă-māb'-I-tŭr, he will be loved: Plur. ă-māb'-I-mur, we shall be loved, ye will be loved, ăm-ā-bim'-i-nī, they will be loved. ăm-ā-bun'-tur.

Perfect. have been, or was.

I have been loved. Sing. ă-mā'-tús sum or fu'-ī, thou hast been loved. ă-mā'-tūs ĕs or fu-is'-tī, he has been loved: ă-mā'-tŭs est or fu'-ĭt, Plur. ă-mā'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-I-mŭs, we have been loved, ă-mā'-tī es'-tĭs or fu-is'-tĭs. ye have been loved, they have been loved ă-mā'-tī sunt, fu'ē'-runt or -rĕ,

Pluperfect. had been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram, I had been loved, . thou hadst been loved. ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās. he had been loved: ă-mā'-tŭs ĕ'-răt or fu'-ĕ-răt, Plur. ă-mā-tī ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, we had been loved, ă-mā'-tī ĕ-rā'-tĭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-tĭs. ue had been loved, they had been loved.

ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

Future Perfect. shall have been.

I shall have been loved, Sing. ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō. thou wilt have been loved, ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-ris ōr fu'-ĕ-rīs. ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-rit or fu'-ĕ-rit, he will have been loved; we shall have been loved, Plur. ă-mā'-tī ĕr-ĭ-mŭs or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs

ă-mā'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, ye will have been loved, ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint. they will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can be.

Sing. ă'-mēr,
ă-mē'-rīs or -rē,
thou mayst be loved,
thou mayst be loved;
k-mē'-tūr,
thou mayst be loved;
he may be loved;
we may be loved,
a-mēm'-ī-nī,
ye may be loved.
they may be loved.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should be.

Perfect. may have been.

Sir.g š-mā'-tūs sim or fū'-č-rīm,
ă-mā'-tūs sis or fū'-č-rīs,
ă-mā'-tūs sit or fū'-č-rīt,
Plur. ă-mā'-tī si'-mūs or fu-er'-f-mūs,
ă-mā'-tī si'-tīs or fu-er'-f-tīs,
ă-mā'-tī sint or fū'-č-rīnt,
they may have been loved,
ye may have been loved,
they may have been loved,
they may have been loved,

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have been.

Sing. ä-mä'-tüs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem,

š-mä'-tüs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs,

å-mä'-tüs es'-sēt or fu-is'-sē,

Plur. ä-mä'-ti es-sē'-müs or fu-is-sē'-müs,

š-mä'-ti es-sē'-tis or fu-is-sē'-tis,

ye would have be-n loved,

š-mä'-ti es-sē'-tis or fu-is-sē'-tis,

ye would have been loved,

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

they would have been loved

ă-mā'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent,

Pres. Sing. ă-mă'-rĕ, be thou loved;
Plur. ā-mām'-i-nī, be ye loved.
Fut. Sing. ă-mā'-tör, ihou shalt be loved;
Plur. (ăm-ā-bim-i-nī, ye shall be loved);
ă-man'-tör, they shall be loved?

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rī, to be loved.

Perfect. ă-mā'-tūs es'-sĕ r sū-is'-sĕ, to have been loved.

Future. ă-mā'-tum ī'-rī, to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. ă-mā'-tŭs, loved, or having been loved. Future. ă-man'-dus. to be loved.

SUPINE.

Latter. ă-mā'-tū, to be loved.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the fre	st root, a	m, are de-	From the second root, From the third root amav, are derived amat, are derived
		n	Active. Passive.
	Active.	Passive.	
Ind. pres.	amo,	amor.	Ind. perf. amāvi, amātus sum, etc.
- imperf.	amābam,		- plup. amavěram, amätus eram, etc.
fut.	amābo,	$am\bar{a}bor.$	- fut. perf. amavero, amātus ero, etc.
Subj. pres.	amem,	amer.	Subj. perf. amavěrim, amātus sim, etc.
- imperf.	amārem,	amārer.	- plup. amavissem, amātus essem, etc
Imperat. pres.	amā,	amāre.	Inf. perf. amavisse, amatus esse, etc.
fut.	amāto,	amātor.	From the third root,
Inf. pres.	amāre,	am <i>āri</i> .	Inf. fut. amatūrus esse, amātum iri.
Part. pres.	amans,		Part. fut. amaturus.
fut.		amandus.	— perf. amātus.
Gerund.	amandi.		Form. sup. amātum. Lat. sup. amātu.

§ 157. SECOND CONJUGATION.

PASSIVE VOICE. ACTIVE VOICE.

Pres. Ind. mo'-ne-o.

Pres. Inf. mo-ne'-re. Perf. Ind. mŏn'-u-ī. mŏn'-i-tum. Supine.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mŏ'-ne-ŏr. Pres. Inf. mŏ-nē'-rī. Perf. Part. mon'-i-tus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

1 advise.

Sing. mď-ne-ť, mŏ'-nēs,

mŏ'-nĕt; Plur. mo-ne'-mus,

mŏ-nē'-tĭs. mo'-nent.

I was advising. S. mo-ne'-bam,

mŏ-nē'-bās, mŏ-nē'-băt;

P. mon-e-ba'-mus, mŏn-ē-bā'-tĭs, mŏ-nē'-bant.

I am advised.

Sing. mo'-ne-or, mŏ-nē'-ris or -rĕ.

mŏ-nē'-tŭr;

Plur. mŏ-nē'-mŭr, mŏ-nēm'-ĭ-nī, mŏ-nen'-tŭr.

Imperfect

I was advised.

S. mö-nē'-băr, mŏn-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ.

mŏn-ē-bā'-tŭr: P. mon-ē-bā'-mur,

mon-ē-bam'-i-nī, mŏn-ē-ban'-tŭr.

PASSIVE.

I shall or will advise.

- S. mŏ-nē'-bŏ, mŏ-nē'-bĭs, mŏ-nē'-bĭt:
- P. mŏ-nēb'-i-mŭs, mŏ-nēb'-i-tis, mŏ-nē'-bunt.

PASSIVE

Future.

I shall or will be advised.

S. mŏ-nē'-bŏr, mŏ-nēb'-ĕ-ris or -rĕ, mŏ-nēb'-ī-tūr; P. mŏ-nēb'-ī-mūr, mŏn-ē-bim'-ī-nī, mŏn-ē-bun'-tūr.

Perfect.

I advised or have advised.

- S. mŏn'-u-ī, mŏn-u-is'-tī, mŏn'-u-īt; P. mŏ-nu'-ĭ-mūs, mŏn-u-is'-tīs, mŏn-u-ē'-runt or -rē.
- I was or have been advised.
- S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕs or fu-is'-tī, mŏn'-ĭ-tūs est or fu'-īt; P. mŏn'-ĭ-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ĭ-mŭs,
- P. mon'-i-ti su'-mus or fu'-i-mus, mon'-i-ti es'-tis or fu-is'-tis, mon'-i-ti sunt, fu-ë'-runt or -re-

Pluperfect.

I had advised.

- S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-ram, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rās, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rāt;
- mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rāt;

 P. mŏn-u-ĕ-rā'-mŭs,
 mŏn-u-ĕ-rā'-tīs,
 mŏ-nu ĕ-rant.

- I had been advised.
- S. mŏn'-i-tūs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, mŏn'-i-tūs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, mŏn'-i-tūs ĕ'-rāt or fu'-ĕ-rāt;
- P. mŏn'i-ti ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-e-rā'-mŭs, mŏn'-i-ti ĕ-rā'-tis or fu-e-rā'-tis, mŏn'-i-ti ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have advised.

- S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rŏ, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭt;
- P. mŏn-u-ĕr'-ī-mŭs, mŏn-u-ĕr'-ī-tĭs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rint.

- I shall have been advised.
- S. mŏn'-i-tūs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ, mŏn'-i-tūs ĕ'-ris or fu'-ĕ-ris, mŏn'-i-tūs ĕ'-rit or fu'-ĕ-rit;
- P. mon'-i-ti er'-i-mus or fu-er'-i-mus, mon'-i-ti er'-i-tis or fu-er'-i-tis, mon'-i-ti e'-runt or fu'-e-rint.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can advise.

- S. mŏ'-ne-am, mŏ'-ne-ās, mŏ'-ne-ăt;
- P. mŏ-ne-ā'-mŭs, mŏ-ne-ā'-tĭs, mŏ'-ne-ant.

I may or can be advised.

- S. mŏ'-ne-ăr, mŏ-ne-ā'-rĭs or -rĕ, mŏ-ne-ā'-tŭr;
- P. mŏ-ne-ā'-mŭr, mŏ-ne-ām'-Ĭ-nī, mŏ-ne-an'-tŭr.

ACT.VE.

PASSIVE

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should advise.

S. mo-ne'-rem, mŏ-nē'-rēs, mŏ-nē'-rĕt;

P. mon-ē-rē'-mus, mon-e-re'-tis, mŏ-nē'-rent.

I may have advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rim.

mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rīs,

mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭt ;

P. mon-u-er'-i-mus,

mon-u-er'-ī-tis.

mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rint.

I might, could, would, or should he advised.

S. mŏ-nē'-rěr, mŏn-ē-rē'-ris or -rě. mŏn-ē-rē'-tūr;

P. mon-ē-rē'-mur, mŏn-ē-rēm'-ĭ-nī. mon-ē-ren'-tur.

Perfect.

I may have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus sim or fu'-è-rim, mon'-i-tus sis or fu'-e-ris. mon'-i-tus sit or fu'-e-rit;

P. mon'-i-ti si'-mus or fu-er'-i-mus, mon'-i-ti si'-tis or fu-er'-i-tis, mon'-i-ti sint or fu'-e-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have advised.

S. mon-u-is'-sem, mŏn-u-is'-sēs, mon-u-is'-set;

P. mon-u-is-se'-mus, mŏn-u-is-sē'-tĭs, mon-u-is'-sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, mon'-i-tus es'-ses or fu-is'-ses, mon'-i-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set;

P. mon'-i-ti es-se'-mus or fu-is-se'-mus, mon'-i-ti es-se'-tis or fu-is-se'-tis, mon'-i-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mo'-ne, advise thou;

P. mŏ-nē'-tě, advise ye.

Fut. S. mo-ne'-to, thou shalt ad-

mŏ-nē'-tŏ, he shall advise; P. mŏn-ē-tō'-tĕ, ye shall advise,

mŏ-nen'-tŏ, they shall admise.

Pres. S. mo-ne'-re, be thou advised; P. mŏ-nēm'-i-nī, be ye ad-

vised. Fut. S. mo-ne'-tor, thou shalt be advised,

mo-nē'-tor, he shall be advised:

P. (mon-ē-bim'-i-nī, ye shall be advised.)

mo-nen'-tor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mo-ne'-re, to advise. Fut. mon-i-tū'-rus es'-se, to be about to advise.

Pres. mo-ne'-ri, to be advised. Perf. mon-u-is'-se, to have advised. | Perf. mon'-i-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se, to have been advised.

Fut. mon'-i-tum i'-ri, to be about to be advised.

PASSIVE.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mŏ'-nens, advising.

Fut. mŏn-1-tū'-rŭs, about to advise.

Fut. mŏ-nen'-dŭs, to be aavised.

GERUND.

G. mo-nen'-di, of advising,

D. mŏ-nen'-dō, etc. Ac. mŏ-nen'-dum,

Ab. mŏ-nen'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

Former. mon'-i-tum, to advise. | Latter. mon'-i-tu, to be advised.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

	t root, mo	m, are de-	From the second root, from the third root, monu, are derived, monit, are derived,
Ind. pres. — imperf. — fut. Subj. pres. — imperf. Imperat. pres.	moneo, monebam monebo, moneam, monerem, mone,	monēbar. monēbor. monear. monērer. monēre.	Ind. perf. monui, monitus sum, etc. monitus rum, etc. plup. monitus rum, etc. monitus eram, etc. monitus essem, etc.
Inf. pres. Part. pres. fut. Gerund.	monēto, monēre, monens, monendi.	monēri. monendus.	From the third root, Inf. fut. moniturus esse, monitum iri. Part. fut. moniturus, perf. moniturus, perf. monitus. Lat. Sup. monitus.

§ 158. THIRD CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. rĕ'-gŏ.
Pres. Inf. rĕ'-gŏr.
Pres. Inf. rĕ'-gŏr.
Pref. Ind. rex'-i.
Pref. Ind. rex'-i.
Perf. Part. rec'-tūs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I rule.

Sing. rë'-gō,
rë'-gō,
rë'-gis,
rë'-git,
rë'-git,
rë'-i-tur;
reg'-i-mus,
rĕg'-i-tis,
rë'-gunt.

I am ruled.
Sing. rë'-gōr,
rĕg'-rĕ,
rĕg'-rĕ,
rĕg'-rĕ,
rĕg'-rĕ,
rĕg'-i-mur,
rĕ-gun'-rūr,
rĕ-gun'-tūr.

PASSIVE

Imperfect.

I was ruling.

S. rĕ-gē'-bam. rĕ-gē'-bās, rĕ-gē'-băt;

P. rĕg-ē-bā'-mŭs. rĕg-ē-bā'-tĭs. rĕ-gē'-bant.

I was ruled.

S. rĕ-gē'-băr, rěg-ē-bā'-ris or -rě, rĕg-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. rĕg-ē-bā'-mur, rěg-ē-bām'-ĭ-nī, rĕg-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

I shall or will rule.

S. rě'-gam, rĕ'-gēs, re'-get;

P. rĕ-gē'-mus, rĕ-gē'-tĭs, rĕ'-gent.

I shall or will be ruled.

S. rĕ'-găr, rě-gē'-ris or -rě, rĕ-gē'-tŭr ;

P. rĕ-gē'-mŭr, rĕ-gēm'-i-ni, rĕ-gen'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I ruled or have ruled.

S. rex'-ī. rex-is'-tī, rex'-it;

P. rex'-i-mus, rex-is'-tis. rex-ē'-runt or -rě. I was or have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus sum or fu'-i, rec'-tus es or fu-is'-ti. rec'-tus est or fu'-it:

P. rec'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ĭ-mŭs, rec'-tī es'-tĭs or fu-is'-tĭs, rec'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -re

Pluperfect.

I had ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-ram. rex'-ĕ-rās. rex'-ĕ-răt:

P. rex-ĕ-rā'-mŭs rex-ĕ-rā'-tĭs. rex'-ĕ-rant.

I had been ruled.

S. rec'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram, rec'-tus e'-ras or fu'-e-ras, rec'-tus e'-rat or fu'-e-rat:

P. rec'-ti ĕ-rā'-mus or fu-ĕ-rā'-mus. rec'-tī ĕ-rā'-tĭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, rec'-ti e'-rant or fu'-e-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have ruled

S. rex'-ĕ-rŏ. rex'-ĕ-rīs.

rex'-ĕ-rĭt: P. rex-ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs. rex-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs. rex'-ĕ-rint.

I shall have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus e'-ro or fu'-e-ro. rec'-tus e'-ris or fu'-e-ris,

rec'-tus ë'-rit or fu' e-rit; P. rec'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-mus or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-mus, rec'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, ec'-ti ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

PASSIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can rule.

S. re'-gam, rĕ'-gās, rě'-găt;

P. rĕ-gā'-mŭs, rĕ-gā'-tĭs, rě'-gant.

I may or can be ruled.

S. rě'-găr, rě-ga'-ris or -rě,

rě-gā'-tŭr: P. rĕ-gā'-mur. rě-gām'-i-nī, rĕ-gan'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should rule.

> S. rěg'-ĕ-rem, rěg'-ě-rēs, rĕg'-ĕ-rĕt;

P. reg-e-re'-mus, rěg-ě-rē'-tis, rĕg'-ĕ-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be ruled. .

S. rěg'-ě-rěr, reg-e-re'-ris or -re, rĕg-ĕ-rē'-túr; P. reg-e-re'-mur, rěg-ě-rēm'-i-ni,

rĕg-ĕ-ren'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I may have ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-rim, rex'-ĕ-rīs, rex'-ĕ-rĭt; P. rex-ĕr'-ī-mus.

rex-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs. rex'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. rec'-tus sis or fu'-ĕ-rīs. rec'-tus sit or fu'-ĕ-rit:

P. rec'-ti si'-mus or fu-er'-i-mus, rec'-tī sī'-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-ī-tĭs, rec'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have ruled.

> S. rex-is'-sem, rex-is'-ses, rex-is'-set;

P. rex-is-sē'-mŭs. rex-is-se'-tis, rex-is'-sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem. rec'-tus es'-ses or fu-is'-ses, rec'-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set;

P. rec'-tī es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus, rec'-ti es-sē'-tis or fu-is-sē'-tis. rec'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. re'-ge, rule thou, P. reg'-1-te, rule ye.

Fut. S. reg'-1-to, thou shalt rule, reg'-i-to, he shall rule;

P. reg-i-to'-te, ye shall rule,

re-gun' to, they shall rule.

Pres. S. reg'-e-re, be thou ruled; P. rě-gim'-i-nī, be ye ruled.

Fut. S. reg'-i-tor, thou shalt be ruled. rěg'-i-tor, he shall be ruled.

P. (re-gim'-i-ni, ye shall, etc.) re-gun'-tor, they shall, etc.

PASSIVE.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. rĕg'-ĕ-rĕ, to rule.
Perf. rex-is'-sĕ, to have ruled.
Fut. rec-tū'-rūs es'-se, to be about to rule.

Pres. rĕ'-gī, to be ruled.
Perf. rec'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ, to
have been ruled.
Fut. rec'-tum i'-rī, to be about to
be ruled.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. re'-gens, ruling. Fut. rec-tū'-rūs, about to rule. Perf. rec'-tŭs, ruled. Fut. rë-gen'-dŭs, to be ruled.

GERUND.

G. rĕ-gen'-dī, of ruling.
D. rĕ-gen'-dŏ, etc.
Ac. rĕ-gen'-dum,
Ab. rĕ-gen'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

Former. rec'-tum, to rule. | Latter. rec'-tū, to be ruled.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the second root, From the third root, From the first root, reg, are derex, are derived, rect. are derived. rived. Active. Passive. Active. Passive. rego, Ind. perf. rectus sum, etc. Ind. pres. regor. · rexi. — plup. - imperf. regēbam, regēbar. rexeram, rectus eram, etc Subj. pres. imperf. ____fut. perf. rexero, Subj. perf. rexerim rectus ero, etc. regam, regar. regam, regar. rexěrim, rectus sim, etc. plup. rexissem, rectus essem, etc. regerem, regerer. Inf. perf. rexisse. Imperat. pres. rege, regere. rectus esse, etc. fut. regito, regitor From the third root, Inf. pres. regěre, regi. Inf. fut. rectūrus esse, rectum iri. Part. pres. regens, Part. fut. rectūrus. ___ fut. regendus. ___ perf. rectus. Gerund. regendi. Form. Sup. rectum. Lat. Sup. rectu.

§ 159. Verbs in IO of the Third Conjugation.

Verbs in io of the third conjugation, in tenses formed from the first root, have, as connecting vowels, ia, ie, io, or iu, wherever the same occur in the fourth conjugation; but where they have only a single connecting vowel, it is the same which characterizes other verbs of the third conjugation. They are all conjugated like cāpto.

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PRINCIPAL PARTS.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

res. Ind. că'-pi-ō, to take. Pres. Inf. căp'-ĕ-rĕ.

Pres. Inf. căp'-ĕ-rĕ.
Perf. Ind. cĕ'-pī.
Supine. cap'-tum.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-ŏr, to be taken. Pres. Inf. că'-pi. Perf. Part. cap'-tūs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

S. că'-pi-ō, că'-pis, · că'-pit;

P. căp'-i-mŭs, căp'-i-tis, că'-pi-unt. S. că'-pi-ŏr, căp'-ĕ-ris or -rĕ, căp'-ĭ-tŭr;

P. cap'-i-mur, ca-pim'-i-ni, ca-pi-un'-tur.

Imperfect.

S. că-pi-ē'-bam, că-pi-ē'-bās,

că-pi-ē'-băt;

P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭs,
că-pi-ē-bā'-tĭs,
că-pi-ē'-bant.

S. că-pi-ē'-băr, că-pi-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ, că-pi-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. că-pi-ē-bā'-măr, că-pi-ē-bām'-I-nī, că-pi-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

S. că'-pi-am, că'-pi-ēs,

că'-pi-ĕt;
P. că-pi-ē'-mŭs,
că-pi-ē'-tĭs,
că'-pi-ent.

S. că'-pi-ăr, că-pi-ē'-ris or -rě,

că-pi-ē'-tŭr;
P. că-pi-ē'-mŭr,
că-pi-ēm'-I-ni,
că-pi-en'-tŭr.

The parts formed from the second and third roots being entirely regular, only a synopsis of them is given.

Perf. cē'-pī.
Plup. cēp'-ĕ-ram.
Fut. perf. cēp'-ĕ-rŏ.

Perf. cap'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī. Plup. cap'-tŭs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. cap'-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

S. că'-pi-am, că'-pi-ās, că'-pi-ăt; P. că-pi-ā'-mus, că-pi-ā'-tis, că'-pi-ant. S. că'-pi-ăr,
că-pi-ā'-ris or -rĕ,
că-pi-ā'-tūr;
P. că-pi-ā'-mūr,
că-pi-ām'-t-nī,
că-pi-am'-tūr.

PASSIJE.

Imperfect.

S. căp'-ĕ-rem, căp'-ĕ-rēs, căp'-ĕ-rĕt: P. cap-ĕ-rē'-mus, căp-ĕ-rē'-tĭs, căp'-ĕ-rent.

S. căp'-ĕ-rĕr, căp-ĕ-rē'-ris or -rĕ. căp-ĕ-rē'-tur; P. căp-ĕ-rē'-mŭr, căp-ĕ-rēm'-i-ni, căp-ĕ-ren'-tŭr.

Perf. cep'-e-rim. Plup. cē-pis'-sem.

Perf. cap'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. cap'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

 Pres. 2. S. că'-pë;
 P. 2. căp'-I-të.
 S. căp'-ë-rë;
 P. că-pĭm'-I-ni.

 Fut. 2. căp'-I-të,
 căp-I-tō-të,
 S. căp'-ë-rë;
 P. că-pĭm'-I-ni.

 căp'-ĭ-tŏr, (că-pi-ēm'-ĭ-ni,) căp'-ĭ-tŏr; că-pi-un'-tŏr. ---- 3. căp'-ĭ-tð; că-pi-un'-tŏ.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. căp'-ĕ-rĕ. Perf. cē-pis'-sě. Fut. cap-tū'-rus es'-se.

Pres. că'-pi. Perf. cap'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se. Fut. cap'-tum i'-ri.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. că'-pi-ens. Fut. cap-tū'-rŭs.

Perf. cap'-tus. Fut. că-pi-en'-dŭs.

GERUND.

G. că-pi-en'-dī, etc.

SUPINES.

Former. cap'-tum. | Latter. cap'-tū.

§ 160. FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-ŏ. Pres. Inf. au-di'-re. Perf. Ind. au-di'-vi. Supine. au-di'-tum.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-or. Pres. Inf. au-di'-ri. Perf. Part. au-di'-tus.

PASSIVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I hear. S. au'-di-č. au'-dis.

au'dit; P. au-di'-mus, au'-dī'-tĭs. au'-di-unt.

I am heard.

S. au'-di-ŏr. au-dī'-rĭs or -rĕ. au-dī'-tŭr;

P. au-di'-mur, au-dim'-i-ni, au-di-un'-tur.

Imperfect.

I was hearing.

S. au-di-ë'-bam, au-di-ē'-bās, au-di-ē'-băt;

P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭs, au-di-ē-bā'-tĭs. au-di-è -bant.

I was heard.

S. au-di-ē'-băr. au-di-ē-bā'-ris or -re. au-di-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭr, au-di-ē-bām'-i-nī, au-di-ē-ban'-tur.

Future.

I shall or will hear.

S. au'-di-am, au'-di-ēs, au'-di-ĕt:

P. au-di-ē'-mŭs. au-di-ē'-tĭs. au'-di-ent.

I shall or will be heard.

S. au'-di-ăr. au-di-ē'-ris or -re. au-di-ĕ'-tŭr;

P. au-di-ē'-mŭr, au-di-ēm'-i-nī, au-di-en'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I heard or have heard.

S. au-dī'-vī, au-di-vis'-ti, au-dī'-vĭt;

P. au-dīv'-I-mus. au-dī-vis'-tis. au-di-ve'-runt or -re. I have been or was heard.

S. au-dī'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, au-di'-tus es or fu-is'-ti, au-di'-tus est or fu'-it;

P. au-dī'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-i-mŭs. au-dī'-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs. au-dī'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rě

Pluperfect.

I had heard.

S. au-dīv'-ĕ-ram, au-dīv'-ĕ-rās, au-div'-ĕ-răt; P. au-div-ĕ-rā'-mŭs,

au-dīv-ĕ-rā'-tis, au-div'-ĕ-rant.

I had been heard.

S. au-di'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram, au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās. au-dī'-tūs ĕ'-rāt or fu'-ĕ-rāt;

P. au-di'-ti ĕ-rā'-mus or fu-ĕ-rā'-mus. au-di'-ti ĕ-rā'-tis or fu-ĕ-rā'-tis, au-di'-ti e'-rant or fu'-e-rant.

I shall have heard.

S. au-dīv -ĕ-rō, au-dīv'-ĕ-rīs. au-dīv'-ĕ-rĭt:

P. au-dī-vĕr'-ĭ-mŭs, au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, au-dīv'-ĕ-rint.

PASSIVE Future Perfect.

I shall have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tus ĕ'-ro or fu'-ĕ-ro, au-dī'-tus ĕ'-rīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs,

au-di'-tus e'-rit or fu'-e-rit; P. au-dî'-tî ĕr'-i-mŭs or fu-ĕr'-i-mŭs. au-dī'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tīs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tis. au-di'-ti ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can hear.

S. au'-di-am, au'-di-ās, au'-di-ăt:

P. au-di-ā'-mus. au-di-ā'-tĭs. au'-di-ant.

I may or can be heard.

S. au'-di-ăr. au-di-ā'-ris or -re. au-di-ā'-tŭr;

P. au-di-ā'-mur, au-di-ām'-ĭ-nī. au-di-an'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should hear.

> S. au-dī'-rem, au-dī'-rēs, au-dí'-rĕt; P. au-di-rë'-mus. au-dī-rē'-tis, au-di'-rent.

I might, could, would, or samuld be heard.

S. au-dī'-rĕr, au-di-rē'-ris or -rē. au-di-rē'-tŭr;

P. au-di-rē'-mur. au-di-rēm'-i-ni. au-dī-ren'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I may have heard.

S. au-div'-ĕ-rim, au-dív'-ĕ-rīs. au-dīv'-ĕ-rĭt: P. au-di-věr'-i-mus,

au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, au-dīv'-ĕ-rint.

I might, could, would, or should have heard.

I may have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, au-dī'-tŭs sīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs, au-dī'-tŭs sit or fu'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. au-dī'-tī sī'-mus or fu-er'-ī-mus, au-dī'-tī sī'-tīs or fu-ĕr'-ī-tīs, au-dī'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tūs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem. au-dī'-tūs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs. au-dī'-tūs es'-sĕt or fu-is'-sĕt;

P. au-dī'-tī es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus. au-dī'-tī es-sē'-tĭs or fu-is-sē'-tĭs, au-di'-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent

au-dī-vis'-sēs, au-dī-vis'-sĕt: P. au-di-vis-sē'-mus. au-dī-vis-sē'-tis,

S. au-dī-vis'-sem.

an-di-vis'-sent.

Gerund.

audiendi.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Pres. S. au'-dī, hear thou;
P. au-dī'-tĕ, hear ye.
Fut. S. au-dī'-tŏ, thou shalt hear;
au-dī'-tŏ, he shall hear;

P. au-dī-tō'-tĕ, ye shall hear, au-di-un'-tō, they shall hear. Pres. S. au-dī'-rĕ, be th. u heard,
P. au-dīm'-ĭ-nī, be ye heard.

Fut. S. au-dif'-tor, thou shalt be heard,

au-dī'-tŏr, he shall be heard;

P. (au-di-ēm'-ĭ-nī, ye shall be heard,) au-dī-un'-tŏr, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. au-dī'-rĕ, to hear.
Perf. au-dī-vis'-sĕ, to have heard.
Fut. au-dī-tū'-rūs es-sĕ, to be
about to hear.

Pres. au-di'-rī, to be heard. Perf. au-dī'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'sĕ, to have been heard. Fut. au-dī'-tum i'-rī, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. au'-di-ēns, hearing.
Fut. au-di-tū'-rūs, about to hear.
Pref. au-dī'-tūs, heard.
Fut. au-di-en'-dūs, to be heard.

GERUND.

G. au-di-en'-dī, of hearing.

D. au-di-en'-dŏ, etc. Ac. au-di-en'-dum.

Ab. au-di-en'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

Former. au-dī'-tum, to hear. | Latter. au-dī'-tū, to be heard.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, and, are de- | From the second root, From the third root, rived audīv, are derived, audit, are derived. Active. Passine. Active. Passive. audio. audior. audīvi, Ind. pres. Ind. perf. audītus sum, etc. - imperf. audiebam, audiebar. - plup. audivéram, auditus eram, etc. - fut. perf. audivero, auditus ero, etc. - fut. audiam, audiar. Subj. perf. audiverim, auditus sim, etc. Subj. pres. audiam, audiar. - imperf. audirem, audirer. — plup. audivissem, audītus essem, eto Inf. perf. andire. Imperat. pres. audi, audivisse, auditus esse, etc. ---- fut. audīto. auditor. From the third root,

Inf. pres. audier, audiers, audiers, audiers, audiers, audiers, audiers, audiers, audierdus.

From the third root, Inf. fut. auditurus esse, auditum iri. Part. fut. auditurus.

Form. sup. auditum.

auditus.
Lat. sup. auditus.
Lat. sup. auditus.

DEPONENT VERBS.

§ 161. Deponent verbs are conjugated like the passive voice, and have also all the participles and participial formations of the active voice. Neuter deponent verbs, however, want the future passive participle, except that the neuter in *dum* is sometimes used impersonally. See § 184, 3.

The following is an example of an active deponent verb of the first conjugation:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Mī'-rŏr, mī-rā'-rī, mī-rā'-tŭs, to admire.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rŏr, mī-rā'-rĭs, etc.	I admire, etc.
Imperf.	mī-rā'-băr, etc.	I was admiring.
Fut.	mī-rā'-bŏr,	I shall admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī,	I have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tus ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram,	I had admired.
Fut Porf	mi-ra'-tus a'-ra or fu'-a-ra	I shall have admired.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rĕr, mī-rē'-rĭs, etc.	I may admire, etc.
Imperf.	mi-rā'-rĕr,	I would admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim,	I may have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tūs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem,	I would have admired.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī-rā'-rī, mī-rā'-tūs es'-sē or fu-is'-sē,	to admire.
Perf.	mīr-ā-tū'-rŭs es'-sĕ,	to be about to admire.
	mi-rā'-tum i'-rī,	to be about to be admired.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mī'-rans,	admiring.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs,	having admired.
Fut. Act.	mir-ā-tū'-rŭs,	about to admire.
Fut. Pass.	mī-ran'-dŭs,	to be admired.

GERUND.

G. mi-ran'-di, of admiring, etc.

SUPINES.

Former mi-rā'-tum, to admire. | Latter. mi-rā'-tū, to be admired.

§ 162.

REMARKS ON THE CONJUGATIONS.

Of the Tenses formed from the First Root.

1. A few words in the present subjunctive of the first and third conjugations, in the earlier writers and in the poets, end in im, is, **, etc.; as, & dim, & dis, & dit, & dimus; comedim, comedis, comediu; for edam, etc. comedium, etc.; duim, duis, duint; and perduin, perduis; perduint, perduint; dements, perduint, perduint, perduint; and perduint, perduint; and dements, etc. perduint, etc. from old forms duo and perduo, for ao and perdo: so creduis, creduit, and also creduam, creduas, creduat, for credam, etc. from the old form creduo, for credo. The form in im, etc. was retained as the regular form in sim and velim, from sum and volo, and in their compounds.

The imperfect indicative in the fourth conjugation, sometimes, especially in the more ancient writers, ends in ibom and ibor, for iebom and iebor, and the future in ibo and ibor, for iam and iar; as, vestibat, Virg, largibar, Propert, for vestibat, largiebar; scibo, opperibor, for seium, opperiur. Ibam and ibo were

retained as the regular forms of eo, queo, and nequeo. Cf. § 182.

The termination re, in the second person singular of the passive voice, is

are in the present, but common in the other simple tenses.

 The imperatives of dico, duco, făcio, and fĕro, are usually written dic, duc. fac, and fer; in like manner their compounds, except those compounds of facto which change a into i; as, effice, on fice; but calface also is found in Cicero; and in old writers dice, edice, addice, indice, dice, addice, tradace, tradace, and face. Inger for ingere is rare. Scio has not sci, but its place is supplied by scito, and scitote is preferred to scite.

5. In the imperative future of the passive voice, but especially of deponents, early writers and their imitators sometimes used the active instead of the passive form; as, arbitrāto, amplexāto, utito, nitito; for arbitrātor, etc.; and censento, utunto, tuento, etc. for censentor, etc.—In the second and third persons singular occur, also, forms in -mino; as, hortamino, veremino, fruimino; for hortator, etc.

6. The syllable er was often added to the present infinitive passive by early writers and especially by the poets; as, amarier for amari, dicier for dici.

Of the Tenses formed from the Second Root.

7. (a.) When the second root ends in v, a syncopation and contraction often occur in the tenses formed from it, by omitting v, and sinking the first vowel of the termination in the final vowel of the root, when followed, in the fourth conjugation, by s, and in the other conjugations, by s or r; as, audissem for audivissem, amasti for amavisti, implerant for impleverunt, noram and nosse for nověram and novisse.

(b.) When the second root ends in iv, v is often omitted without contraction;

as, audiero for audivero; audiisse for audivisse.

(c.) When this root ends in s or x, especially in the third conjugation, the syllables is, iss, and sis, are sometimes omitted in the termination of tenses derived from it; as, evasti for evasisti, extinxti for extinxisti, divisse for divisisse; extinxem for extinxissem, surrexe for surrexisse; accestis for accessistis, just for jussisti; dixti for dixisti. So faxem for (facsissem, i. e.) fecissem.

(d.) In the perfect of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, a syncope sometimes occurs in the last syllable of the root and the following syllable of the termination, especially in the third person singular; as, funat, audit, cupit; for fumavit, auditit, cupivit. So, also, but rarely, in the first person; as, septil, enarrāmus; for sepelīvi, enarrāvimus.

8. In the third person plural of the perfect indicative active, the form in ere is less common than that in erunt, especially in prose.

9. Auzient forms of a future perfect in so, a perfect and pluperfect subjunctive in sim and sem, and a perfect infinitive in se sometimes occur. They may, in general, be formed by adding these terminations to the second root of the vert; as, recepso, emissim, ausim from the obsolete perfect, ausi, from audeonferim and promisses. But when the root ends in z, and frequently when it ends in s, only o, im, em, and e, etc. are added; as, jusso, duxis; intellexes, percepset; survexe, sunse. V, at the end of the root, in the first conjugation, is changed into s; as, levasso, locasim. U, at the end of the root in the second conjugation, is changed into es; as, habesso, licessic. Sometimes the vowel of the present is retained in these forms, though changed in the other parts derived from the second root; as, capso, faxo (faxeo), faxo (faxeo), faxo (faxeo), faxo (faxeo).

Note. Faxo expresses determination, 'I will,' or, 'I am resolved, to make, cause,' etc. The subjunctive fucil, etc., expresses a solemn wish; as, dimmortides fuxint. Assim, etc. express doubt or hesitation, 'I might venture,' etc. The perfect in sim is used also in connection with the present subjunctive; as, quaso ut in calamitates prohibesis, defendar, agerruncesque. Cato.

10. In the ancient Latin a few examples occur of a future passive of similar form; as, turbassitur, justiur, instead of turbatum fuirit, and jussus fuirit.—A future infinitive active in sere is also found, in the first conjugation, which is formed by adding that termination to the second root, changing, as before, v into s; as, expunsasere, impercussive, for expunsatirum esse, etc.

Of the Tenses formed from the Third Root.

- 11. The supine in um, though called one of the principal parts of the verb, belongs in fact to very few verbs, the whole number which have this supine not amounting to three hundred. The part called in dictionaries the supine in um must therefore, in most cases, be considered as the neuter gender of the perfect participle.
- 12. In the compound tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods, the participle is always in the nominative case, but it is used in both numbers, and in all genders, to correspond with the number and gender of the subject of the verl; as, amātus, -a, -un, est; amāti, -a, -a, sunt, etc.
- (1.) Fui, fueram, fuerim, fuissem, and fuisse, are seldom used in the compound tenses of deponent verbs, and not so often as sum, etc., in those of c'her verbs, but when used they have generally the same sense. It is to be remarked, however, that fui with the perfect participle usually denotes that which has been, but which no longer exists. In the pluperfect subjunctive, förem, etc., for essem, etc., are sometimes found.
- (2.) But as the perfect participle may be used in the sense of an adjective, expressing a permanent state, (see § 162, 22), if then connected with the tenses of sum its meaning is different from that of the participle in the same connection; epistola scripta est, when scripta is a participle, signifies, the letter has been written, but if scripta is an adjective, the meaning of the expression is, the letter is written, and epistola scripta fuit, in this case, would signify, the letter has been written, or, has existed as a written one, implying that it no longer exists.
- 13. The participles in the perfect and future infinitive, are used only in the nominative and accusative, but in all genders and in both numbers; as, amātus, -a, -um, csse or fuisse; amātum, -am, -um, esse or fuisse; amāt, -a, -a, esse or fuisse; amātus, -a, -a, esse or fuisse; amātos, -as, -a, esse or fuisse; and so of the others. With the infinitive fuisse, amātus, etc. are generally to be considered as participial adjectives
- (1.) These participles in combination with esse are sometimes used as indeclinable; as cohortes ad me missum facias. Cic. Ad me, mea Terentia, scribis to micum venditurum. Id.

Periphrastic Conjugations.

14. The participle in rus, joined to the tenses of the verb sum, denotes either intention, or being upon the point of doing something. This form of the verb is called the active periphrastic conjugation.

REMARK 1. As the performance of the act depends either on the will of the subject, on that of others, or upon circumstances, we may say, in English, in the first case, 'I intend,' and in the others, 'I am to,' or 'I am about to' (be or do any thing).

INDICATIVE.

Pres. amaturus si	im, I am about to love.
Imperf. amatūrus e	ram, I was about to love.
Fut. amatūrus e	ro, I shall be about to love.
Perf. amatūrus fi	ii, I was or have been about to love.

Plup. amatūrus fuĕram, I had been about to love.

SUBJUNCTIVE.						
	amatūrus		I may be about to love.			
Imperf.	amatūrus		I would be about to love.			
Perf.	amatūrus	fuĕrim,	I may have been about to love.			
Plup.	amatūrus	fuissem,	I would have been about to love.			

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	amatūrus esse,	to be about to love.
Perf.	amatūrus fuisse,	to have been about to love.

REM. 2. Fuero is scarcely used in connection with the participle in rus.

REM. 3. Amaturus sim and amaturus essem serve also as subjunctives to the future amābo. The infinitive amaturus fuisse answers to the English, 'I should have loved,' so that in hypothetical sentences it supplies the place of an infinitive of the pluperfect subjunctive.

REM. 4. In the passive, the fact that an act is about to be performed is expressed by a longer circumlocution: as, in eo est, or futurum est, ut epistola icribatur, a letter is about to be written. So in eo erat, etc., through all the tenses.

15. The participle in dus, with the verb sum, expresses necessity or propriety; as, amandus sum, I must be loved, or deserve to be loved. With the various moods and tenses of sum, it forms a passive periphrastic conjugation;—thus:

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n	NDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	
Pres.	amandus sum,	Pres. Imperf. Perf. Plup.	amandus sim,
Imperf.	amandus ĕram,		amandus essem,
Fut.	amandus ĕro,		amandus fuĕrim,
Perf.	amandus fui,		amandus fuissem.
Plup.	amandus fuĕram,	Pres.	amandus esse,
Fut. Perj	amandus fuĕro.		amandus fuisse.

Rem. 5. The neuter of the participle in dus with est and the dative of a person, expresses the necessity of performing the action on the part of that person as, milk scribendum est I must write, etc., and so through all the tenses.

Participles.

16. The following perfect participles of neuter verbs, like those of active deponents, are translated by active participles:—canātus, having supped; pôtus, having drunk; pransus, having dined; and sometimes juratus, having swern. So also adultus, coalitus, conspiratus, interitus, occāsus, obsolētus, and crētus.

For the active meaning of osus and its compounds, see § 183, 1.

17. (a.) The perfect participles of some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive sense; as, adeptus libertātem, having obtained liberty, or adeptâ libertāte, liberty having been obtained. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

So adominātus, comitātus, commentātus, complexus, confessus, contestātus, detestātus, dignātus, dimensus, effātus, emensus, ementītus, emerītus, expertus, exsecrātus, interpretātus, largitus, machinātus, medidatus, mercātus, metātus, oblitus, spinātus, orsus, pactus, partītus, perfunctus, perichitātus, pollicitus, populatus, depopulatus, stipilātus, testātus, utus, venerātus.

- (b.) The participle in dus, of deponent verbs, is commonly passive.
- 18. The perfect participles of neuter passive verbs have the signification of the active voice; as, $gav\bar{\imath}sus$, having rejoiced. But ausus is used both in an active and a passive sense.
- 19. The genitive plural of participles in rus is seldom used, except that of futurus. Venturorum is found in Ovid, exiturarum, transiturarum and periturorum in Seneca, and moriturorum in Augustine.
- 20. In the third and fourth conjugations, the gerund and future passive participle (including deponents) sometimes end in undum and undus, instead of endum and endus, especially when i precedes; as, faciundum, audiundum, scribundus. Potior has usually potiundus.
- 21. Many present and perfect participles are compounded with in, signifying not, whose verbs do not admit of such composition; they thus become adjectives; as, insciens, ignorant; imparatus, unprepared.
- 22. Participles, when they do not express distinctions of time, become adjectives, and as such are compared; as, amans, loving; amantior, amantissimus. They sometimes also become substantives; as, prefectus, a commander; ausum, an attempt; commissum, an offence.

Note. Many words derived from substantives, with the terminations of participles, atus, itus, and ūtus, are yet adjectives; as, alūtus, winged; turritus, turreted, etc. See § 128, 7.

GENERAL RULES OF CONJUGATION.

§ 163. 1. Verbs which have a in the first root have it also in the third, even when it is changed in the second; as, făcio, factum hâbco, habitum. The connecting vowel is often omitted in the second root, and in such cases, if v follows, it is changed into u. This happens in most verbs of the second conjugation.

REMARK. Some verbs of the first, second, and third conjugations prefix to the second root their initial consonant with the vowel which follows it, or with \(\tilde{\epsilon}_i \) as, curro, \(\tilde{curri}_i \) fallo, \(f \tilde{\epsilon} f \) fills prefix is called a reduplication.

Note 1. Spondeo and sto lose s in the second syllable, making spopondi and stoti. For the verbs that take a reduplication, see §§ 165, R. 2; 168, N. 2; 171, Exc. 1, (b.)

- 3. Verbs which want the second root commonly want the third root also.
- Compound verbs form their second and third roots like the simple verbs of which they are compounded; as, audio, audivi, auditum; exaudio, exaudivi, exauditum.
- NOTE 2. Some compound verbs, however, are defective, whose simples are complete, and some are complete, whose simples are defective.
- Exc. 1. Compound verbs omit the reduplication; but the compounds of do, sto, disco, posco, and some of those of curro, retain it.
- Exc. 2. Verbs which, in composition, change a into e in the first root, (see § 189, 1,) retain e in the second and third roots of the compound; as, scando, scandi, scansum; descendo, descendi, descensum.
- Exc. 3. (a.) When a, α , or e, in the first root of the simple verb, is changed in the compound into i, (see § 189, 2.), the same is retained in the second and third roots, in case the third root of the simple verb is a dissyllable; as, habeo, habui, habitum; prohibeo, prohibitum.
- (b.) But if the third root is a monosyllable, the second root of the compound has usually the same vowel as that of the simple, but sometimes changes a or e into i, and the third root has e; as, făcio, fēci, factum; conficio, confēci, confectum; těneo, těnui, tentum; retineo, retinui, retentum; răpio, răpui, raptum; abripio, abripui, abreptum.

Note 3. The compounds of cado, ago, frango, pango, and tango, retain a in the third root. See § 172.

Exc. 4. The compounds of părio, (ēre), and some of the compounds of do and cubo, are of different conjugations from their simple verbs. See do, cubo and părio in §§ 165 and 172.

A few other exceptions will be noticed in the following lists.

FORMATION OF SECOND AND THIRD ROOTS.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

§ 164. In regular verbs of this conjugation, the second root ends in $\bar{a}v$, and the third in $\bar{a}t$; as, amo, amāvi, amātum.

The following list contains such regular verbs of this conjugation as are of most frequent occurrence.

NOTE. In this and subsequent lists, those verhs which are marked * are said to have no perfect participle; those marked † to have no present participle. A dash(-) after the present, denotes that there is no second root. The participles in rus and dus, and the supines in um and u which are in use, are indicated respectively by the letters r., d., m., and u. Abundo, for example, has no perfect participle, no supine, no participle in dus : but it has a present participle, and a participle in rus.

In the lists of irregular verbs, those compounds only are given, whose conjugation dif-

fers from that of their simples.

When p. is subjoined to a deponent verb, it denotes that some of the parts which have commonly an active meaning, are used either actively and passively, or passively alone. Such verbs are by some grammarians called common. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

*Abundo, r. to overflow. Accūso, m.r.d. to accuse. † Adumbro, to delineate. Ædifíco, r. d. to build. Equo, r. d. to level. Æstimo, r. d. to value. *Ambŭlo, m. d. to walk. Amo, r. d. to love. † Amplio, d. to enlarge. Appello, d. to call. Apto, d. to fit. Aro, r. d. to plough. *† Ausculto, to listen. *†Autumo, to assert. †Bāsio, —, d. to kiss. *Bello, m. r. d. to wage war. Beo, to bless.

" Boo, to bellow. †Brěvio, fo shorten. † Cœco, to blind. † Cælo, to carve. † Calceo, d. to shoe. * † Calcitro, to kick. Canto, m. to sing. Capto, m. r. d. to seize. Castigo, m. d. to chastise. Celebro, d. w celebrate. Celo, d. to conceal. Cesso, d. to cease. Certo, r. d. to strive. Clāmo, to shout. Cogito, d. to think. Concilio, r. d. to conciliate. Considero, r. d. to consider. Cremo, d. to burn.—con-

cremo, r. | Creo, r. d. to create. Crucio, d. to torment. Culpo, r. d. to blame. Unneo, d. te wedge in. Curo, r. d. to care for. Damno, m. r. d. to condemn.

Decoro, d. to adorn. * Delinec. to delineate. Lasadero, r. d. to desire. Destino, d. to design. Dico, nf. r. d. to dedicate. Dicto, to dictate. †Dolo, to hew. Dono, r. d. to bestow. Duplico, r. d. to double. Duro, r. to harden. †Effigio, to portray. †Enucleo, to explain. Equito, to ride. Erro, to wander. Existimo, u.r.d. to think. Exploro, m. d. to search. Exsulo, m. r. to be banished. Fabrico, d. to frame. †Fatigo, r. d. to weary. Festino, r. to hasten. Firmo, r. d. to strengthen. Flagito, m. d. to demand. *Flagro, r. to be on fire .conflagro, r.-deflagro. Flo, d. to blow. Formo, r. d. to form. Fŏro, d. to bore. †Frando, d. to defraud. †Frēno, to bridle. † Frio, —, to crumble. Fugo, r. d. to put to flight. †Fundo, r. to found. †Furio, —, to madden. †Galeo, —, to put on a helmet. Gesto, d. to bear.

Glăcio, —, to congeal. Gravo, d. to weigh down. Gusto, d. to taste. Habito, m. d. to dwell. *Hālo, —, to breathe. Hièmo, m. to winter. *Hio, d. to gape. Hamo, 1. d. to bury. Ignoro, r. d. to be igno-

rant of. Impèro, r. d. to command. Impetro, r. d. to obtain. Inchno, " to begin

Indago, r. d. to trace out.

Indico, m. r. d. to show. †Inebrio,—, to inebriate. Initio, to initiate. Inquino, to pollute. Instauro, d. to renew. Intro, r. d. to enter. Invito, d. to invite. Irrito, r. d. to irritate. Itero, u. d. to do again. Jacto, r. d. to throw. Judico, r. d. to judge. Jŭgo, d. to couple. Jugnlo, m. d. to buicher Jūro, d. to swear. Laboro, r. d. to labor. Lacero, d. to tear. *Lacto, to suckle. †Lănio, d. to tear in pieces. Latro, to bark. Laudo, r. d. to praise. Laxo, d. to loose. †Lego, to depute. Levo, r. d. to lighten. Libero, r. d. to free. Lībo, d. to pour out. Ligo, to bind. †Liquo, d. to melt. Lito, to appease. Loco, r. d. to place. Lustro, d. to survey. Luxurio, to be luxuriam. Macto, d. to sacrifice. Maculo, to spot, stain. Mando, r. d. to command. Manduco, to chew. *Māno, to flow.

† Minio, d. to paint red. Ministro, d. to serve. Mitigo, d. to pacyy.

Monstro, r to show. †demonstro. d

*Migro, u. r. d. to depart

*Milito, m. r. to serve us

Maturo, d. to ripen.

*Meo, to go.

a soldier

Memoro, u. d. to tell.

Muto, r. d. to change

Narro, r. d. to tell. Nato, m. r. to swim. *Nauseo, to be sea-sick †Navigo, r. d. to sail. Nāvo, r. d. to perform. Nego, m. r. d. to deny. *No, to swim. Nomino, r. d. to name. Noto, d. to mark. Novo, r. d. to renew. Nūdo, d. to make bare. Nuncupo, r. d. to name Nuntio, m. r. to tell .-renuntio, d. *Nūto, r. to nod. Obsecro, m. r. d. to be-Obtrunco, r. to kill. Onero, r. d. to load. Opto, d. to wish. †Orbo, r. to bereare. Orno, r. d. to adorn. Oro, m. r. d. to beg. Pāco, d. to subdue. Paro, r. d. to prepare. comparo, d. to compare. Patro, r. d. to perform. *Pecco, r. d. to sin. †Pio, d. to propitiate. Placo, r. d. to appease. Ploro, m. d. to bewail. Porto, u. r. d. to carry. Postŭlo, m. r. d. to demand. Privo, d. to deprive. Probo, m. u. r. d. to approve. -- comprobo, m. Profligo, d. to rout. Propero, d. to hasten. *†Propino, to drink to. Propitio, d. to appease. Pugno, r. d. to jight. Pulso, d. to beat. Purgo, u. r. d. to cleanse.

Pŭto, d. to reckon. Quasso, d. to shake. Rădio, to emit rays. Rapto, d. to drag away. Recupero, m. r. d. to recover. Recūso, r. d. to refuse. Redundo, to overflow. Regno, r. d. to rule. †Repudio, r. d. to reject. Resero, d. to unlock. *†Retálio, —, to retaliate. Rigo, to water. Rogo, m. r. d. to ask. Roto, to whirl around. Sacrifico, m. to sacrifice. Sacro, d. to consecrate. †Sagino, d. to fatten. Salto, r. to dance. Salūto, m. r. d. to salute. Sāno, r. d. to heal. Sătio, to satiate. †Saturo, to fill. Saucio, d. to wound. *Secundo, to prosper. Sēdo, m. d. to allay. Servo, r. d. to keep. *†Sibilo, to hiss. Sicco, d. to dry. Signo, r. d. to mark out .assigno, m. Simulo, r. d. to pretend. Socio, d. to associate. *Somnio, to dream. Specto, m. r. d. to behold. Spēro, r. d. to hope. *Spiro, to breathe.-conspiro. — exspiro, r. suspiro, d. Spólio, m. d. to rob. Spūmo, to foam. Stillo, to drop. Stimulo, to goad.

Sūdo, to sweat. Suffoco, to strangle. Sugillo, d. to taunt. Supero, r. d. to overcome. Suppedito, to afford. *Supplico, m. to suppli-*Susurro, to whisper. Tardo, to delay. Taxo, d. to rate. Temero, d. to defile. Tempero, r. d. to temper -obtempero, r. to obey. Tento, m. r. d. to try. Terebro, to bore. Termiuo, r. d. to limit. Titubo, to stagger. Tolero, u. r. d. to bear. Tracto, u. d. to handle. *†Tripădio, to dance. Triumpho, r. to triumph. Trucido, r. d. to kill. Turbo, d. to disturb. *Váco, to be at leisure. *Vapŭlo, m. d. to be beat en. Cf. § 142, 3.

Vărio, to diversify. Vasto, d. to lay waste. Vellico, to pluck. Verbero, r. d. to beat. *Vestigo, to search for Vexo, d. to tease. Vibro, d. to brandish. Vigilo, to watch. Violo, m. r. d. to violate. Vitio, d. to vitiate. Vīto, u. d. to shun. Ulŭlo, to howl. Umbro, r. to shade. Voco, r. d. to call. *Vŏlo, to fly. Voro, r. to devour. Vulgo, r. d. to publish. Vulněro, d. to wound.

§ 165. The following verbs of the first conjugation are either irregular or defective.

Stipo, to stuff.

*Crĕpo, crepui, to make a noise. *discrèpo, -ui, or -āvi. incrèpo, -ui or -āvi.-ītum or -ātum. *†percrèρo, —. *†recrèpo, —.

*Cubo, cubui, (perf. subj. cubūris; inf. cubasse), cubītum (sup.), to recline. incubo, -ui or āvi, d. Those compounds of cubo which take m before b, are of the third conjugation.

Do, cadi, datum, m. r. d. to give.— So c.reumda, pessumde, satisdo, and venumdo; the other compounds of do are of the third conjugation. See

§ 163, Exc. 1.
Domo, domui, domitum, r. d. to tame.
Frico, fricui, frictum or fricatum, d.
to rub. confrico, —, -ātum. So infri-

co. defrīco, —, -ātum or -ctum. Jūvo, jūvi, jūtum, r. d., also juvatūrus, to help. ādjūvo, -jūvi, -jūtum, m. r. d. also adjuvatūrus.

*Labo, labasse, to to 'er.

Lăvo, lāvi, rar. lăvāvi, lavātum, lautum or lötum; (sup.) lautum or lavātum, lavatūrus, d. to wash. Lāvo is also sometimes of the third conjugation.

*Mico, micui, d. to glitter. dimico, -āvi or -ui, -atūrus. *emico, -ui, -atūrus. *intermico, —. *promi-

co, -, d.

Něco, necāvi or necui, necātnm, r. d. to kill. eněco, -āvi or -ui, -ātum, or -ctum, d. †interueco, —, -ātum.

* Nexo, -, to tie.

Plico, —, plicātum, to field. duplico, -āvi, -ātum, r. d. multiplico and replico have -āvi, -ātum. *supplico, -āvi, m. r. applico, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -ītum, -itīrus. So implico. —complico, -ui, -ītum or -ītum, -atūrus or -itūrus.

l'öto, potāvi, potātum or pōtum, r. r. m. m. d. to drink. †epōto, -āvi, -um.

-*perpōto, -āvi.

Scco, secui, sectum, secatūrus, d. to

cut.—*circumsēco, —. *intersēco —, d. *persēco, -ui. præsēco, -ui, -tum or -ātum. So resēco, d.

*Sono, sonui, -atūrns, d. to sound. *consono, -ui. So ex-, in-, per-, pra-sono. *resono, avi. *assono, -. So circumsono and dissono.

**Sto, stěti, statūrus, to staud. **antesto, -steti. So circumsto, intersto, supersto.—Its compounds with mumosyllabic prepositions have stiti, as, **consto, -stiti, -statūrus. So exsto, insto, obsto, persto. **præsto, -stiti, -stitūrus. **prosto, -stiti. Soresto, restiti: but sub; perf. restiti: but sub; perf. restiti: but sub; perf. restiverit, Propert, 2, 34, 53. **disto, — So substo and supersto.

*Tono, tonui, to thunder. So circumtono, attono, -ui, -itum, intono,

-ui, -ātum. *retŏno, -.

Veto, vetui, rarely avi, vetitum, to forbid.

REMARK 1. The principal irregularity, in verbs of the first and second conjugations, consists in the omission of the connecting vowel in the second root, and the change of the long rowels \tilde{a} and \tilde{e} in the third root into \tilde{i} . The \tilde{v} remaining at the end of the second root, when it follows a consonant, is pronounced as v_i as, cubo, $(cub\tilde{a}v_i)$ by specope $cubv_i$), i.e. $cubus_i$ ($cub\tilde{a}v_i$) by change of the connecting vowel, $cubv_i$) and very frequently in the second, the connecting vowel is omitted in the third root also; as, juco, $(\tilde{a}ve)$ $j\bar{u}v_i$, $j\bar{u}lum_i$ timeo, $(\tilde{c}ve)$ timui, $textum_i$. In the second conjugation several verbs whose general root ends in d and g, and a few others of different terminations, form either their second or third root or both, like verbs of the third conjugation, by adding s: as, rideo, risi, risum.

Rem. 2. The verbs of the first conjugation whose perfects take a reduplication are do, sto, and their compounds.

Rem. 3. The following verbs in eo are of the first conjugation, viz. beo, calceo, creo, cineo, cnacko, illiqueo, collineo, delineo, meo, nauseo, screo; eo and its compounds are of the fourth.

§ 166. All deponent verbs, of the first conjugation, are regular, and are conjugated like miror, § 161; as,

Abominor, d. to abhor.
Adulor, d. to flatter.
Emulor, d. to rival.
Ancillor, to be a handmaid.
*Apricor, to bask in the
sun.

Arbitror, r. d. to think.

Aspernor, d. p. to despise.

Auchper, r. p. to hunt
after.

Auxilior, p. to help.
Aversor, d. to dislike.
Bacchor, p. to revel.
Calumnior, to censure unfairly.

Causor, to allege. *Comissor, m. to revel. Comitor, p. to accompany. Concionor, to harangue. *Confabillor, m. to con-

*Confabulor, m. to converse together. Conor, d. to endeavor. *Conspicor, to see.

Contemplor, d. p. to view attentively. Criminor, m. p. to complain of.

Canctor, d. p. to deloy. Deprécor, m. r. d. p. to deprecate.

*†Diglădior, to fence. Dignor, d. p. to deemworthy.

Dominor, p. to rule. Epülor, r. d. to feast. *Famülor, m. to wait on. Fätur, (defect.) u. d. p to speak. See § 183, 6.

to speak. See § 183, 6. †Fērior, r. to keep holiday. *Frumentor, m. to forage.

Fūror, m. to steal. Glorior, r. d. to boast. Gratulor, m. d. to congratulate.

Hariolor, to practise sooth-Hortor, d. to encourage. Imitor, u. r. d. to imitate. Indignor, d. to disdain. Infitior, d. to deny. Insector, to pursue. Insidior, r. d. to lie in wait for. Interprétor, p. to explain. Jaculor, p. to hurl. Jocor, to jest. Lætor, r. d. p. to rejoice. Lamentor, d. p. to bewail. *†Lignor, m. to gather wood. Luctor, d. to wrestle. Medicor, r d. p. to heal. Meditor, p to meditate. Mercor, m. r. d. p. to buy. Minor, to threaten. Miror, u. r. d. to admire. Miseror, d. to pity.

Moderor, u. d. to govern.

Modulor, d. p. to modulate. Moror, r. d. to delay. † Mutuor, p. to borrow. Negotior, r. to traffic. * Nugor, to trifle. Obsonor, m. to cater. Obtestor, p. to beseech. Opěror, to work. Opinor, u. r. d. to think. Opitulor, m. to help. †Otior, to be at leisure. Pabulor, m. d. to graze. Palor, to wander about. Percontor, m. to inquire. Perichitor, d. p. to try. †Piscor, m. to fish. Populor, r. d. p. to lay Prædor, m. p. to plunder. Précor, m. u. r. d. to pray. Prœlior, to fight. Recordor, d. to recollect. Rīmor, d. to search. Rixor, to quarrel.

*Rusticor, to live in the country. Sciscitor, m. p. to inquire. *Scitor, m. to ask. Scrutor, p. to search. Solor, d. to comfort. Spătior, to walk about. Speculor, m. r. d. to spe †Stipulor, p. to bargain, stipulate. †Suāvior, d. to kiss. Suspicor, to suspect. Testificor, p. to testify. Testor, d. p. to testify. so detestor. Tutor, to defend. Vagor, to wander. Veneror, d. p. to venerate, worship. Venor, m. p. to hunt. Versor, to be employed. Vocif eror, to bawl.

Some deponents of the first conjugation are derived from nouns, and signify being or practising that which the noun denotes; as, ancillari, to be a handmaid; hariolari, to practise soothsaying; from ancilla and hariffus.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

§ 167. Verbs of the second conjugation end in eo, and form their second and third roots in u and it; as, moneo, monui, monřtum.

The following list contains most of the regular verbs of this conjugation, and many also which want the second and third roots :-

*Aceo, to be sour. *Ægreo, -, to be sick. *Albeo, —, to be white. *Arceo, d. to drive away; part. adj. arctus or ar-The compounds change a into e; as, coerceo, d. to restrain. exerceo, r. d. to exer-

eise. * Areo, to be dry.

*Aveo, -, to covet. *Calco, r. to be warm. *Calleo, -, to be hardened. *percalleo, to know

well. *Calveo, -, to be baid.

*Candeo. to be white. *Cāneo to be hoary.

*Careo, r. d. to want.

* Ceveo -, to j'un.

*Clareo, -, to be bright. *Cluco, -, to be famous. *Denseo, -, to thicken. *Diribeo, -, to sort the

voting tablets. *Doleo, r. d. to grieve.

*Egeo, r. to want. *Emineo, to rise above.

*Flacceo, to droop. *Flaveo, —, to be yellow. *Floreo, to blossom.

*Focteo, —, to be fetid. *Frigeo, -, to be cold. *Frondeo, -, to bear leaves.

Habeo, r. d. to have. The compounds, except posthabeo, change a into 1; as. ad-, ex-, pro-hibeo. cohibeo, d. to restrain.

inhibeo, d. to hinder.

*†perhibeo,d. to report. posthabeo, to postpone. præbeo, (for præhib-eo), r. d. to afford. *præhĭbeo, -. debeo, (for dehabeo), r. d. to

owe. *Hĕbeo, —, to be dull. *Horreo, d. to be rough. *Humeo. —. to be moist.

*Jăceo, r. to lie.

*Lacteo, -, to suck. *Langueo, -, to be faint *Lateo, to lie hid.

*Lenteo, -, to be slow. *Liceo, to be valued.

*Liveo, —, to be livid. *Măceo, —, to be lean. *Madeo, to be wet.

*Mæreo, -, to grieve. Mereo, r. to deserve.

tcommereo, to fully deserve. †dēměreo, d. to earn. †eměreo, to serve out one's time. * | permereo, -, to go through service. promereo, to deserve.

Mŏneo, r. d. to advise. admoneo, m. r. d. to remind. commoneo, to impress upon. præmöneo, to forewarn.

*Muceo, —, to be mouldy. *Nigreo, —, to be black. *Niteo, to shine.

Noceo, m - to hurt.

*Oleo, to smell.

*Palleo, to be pale.

*Pāreo, m. r. d. to obey. *Păteo, to be open.

Plăceo, to please. *Polleo, -, to be able.

*Putreo, to be putrid. *Renideo, —, to glitter. *Rigeo, to be stiff.

*Pūteo, to stink.

*Rubeo, to be red. *Scăteo, —, to gush forth. *Sĕneo, —, to be old.

*Sileo, d. to be silent. *Sordeo, -, to be filthy.

*Splendeo, -, to shine.

*Stupeo, to be amazed.

*Squāleo, —, to be foul. *Strideo, —, to creak. *Studeo, d. to study.

*Vēgeo, —, to arouse.

*Vieo, -, to plant. Pa. viētus, shriveled. *Vigeo, to flourish. *Vireo, to be green. *Uveo, -, to be moist.

*Sueo, -, to be went. Tăceo, r. d. to be s.ient.

Terreo, d. to terrify. So deterreo, to deter. †ab-sterreo, to deter. †con-

terreo, to frighten.

*Torpeo, —, to be stiff.

*Timeo, d. to fear.

*Văleo, r. to be able.

*Timeo, to swell.

terreo, †exterreo, †per-

*Těpeo, to be warns.

§ 168. The following verbs of the second conjugation are irregular in their second or third roots or in both.

Note 1. As the proper form of verbs of the first conjugation is, o, avi, atum, of the fourth io, īvi, ītum, so that of the second would be eo, ēvi, ētum. Very few of the latter conjugation, however, retain this form, but most of them, as noticed in § 165, Rem. 1, drop in the second root the connecting vowel, e, and those in veo drop ve; as, căveo, (cavevi) cavi, (cavetum or cavitum) cautum. Others, imitating the form of those verbs of the third conjugation whose general root ends in a consonant, add s to form the second and third roots. § 165, Rem. 1, and §171.

NOTE 2. Four verbs of the second conjugation take a reduplication in the parts formed from the second root, viz. mordeo, pendeo, spondeo, and tondeo. See § 163, Rem.

Abŏleo, -ēvi, -ĭtum, r. d. to efface. *Algeo, alsi, to be cold.

Ardeo, arsi, arsum, r. to burn. Audeo, ausus sum, (rarely ausi, whence ausim, § 183, R. 1,) r. d. to dure. Augeo, auxi, auctum, r. d. to increase.

Căveo, cavi, cautum, m. d. to beware. Censeo, censui, censum, d. to think. recenseo, -ui, -um or -ītum. *per-censeo, -ui. *succenseo, -ui, d. censeo, -ui.

Cieo, cîvi, cĭtum, to excite. 180, civi, citain, we excue. I here is a cognate form, cio, of the fourth conjugation, both of the simple verb and of its compounds. The penult of the participles excitus and concitus is common, and that of accitus is always long.

*Conniveo, -nivi, to wink at. Dēleo, -ēvi, -ēt am, d. to blot out. Doceo, docui, doctum, d. to teach. *Faveo, fāvi, fautūrus, to favor. *Ferveo, ferbui, to boil. Sometimes fervo, vi, of the third conjugation. Fleo, flevi, fletum, r. d. to weep. Foveo, fovi, fotum, d. to cherish.

*Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Fulgo, of the third conjugation, is also in use. Gaudeo, gavīsus sum, r. to rejoice.

*Hæreo, hæsi, hæsūrus, to stick. 🏖 ad-, co-, in-, ob- hæreo; but *subhæ-

Indulgeo, indulsi, indultum, r. d. to in

Jubeo, jussi, jussum, r. d. to order. *Luceo, luxi, to shine. polluceo, -luxi -Inctum.

*Lūgeo, luxi, d. to mourn.

*Maneo, mansi, mansum, m. r. d. 4 remain.

Misceo, miscui, mistum or mixtum. misturus, d. to mix.

Mordeo, momordi morsum, d. to bite. remordeo, -di, -morsum, r.

Moveo, movi, motum, r. d. to move. Mulceo, mulsi, mulsum, d. to soothe. permulceo, permulsi, permulsum and

permulctum, to rub gently. *Mulgeo, mulsi or mulxi, to milk. emulgeo, -, emulsum, to milk out.

Neo, nevi, netum, to spin.

*Paveo, pāvi, d. to fear. *Pendeo, pependi, to harg. *impendeo, -. propendeo, -, propensum. Pleo, (a'solete). compleo, -ēvi, -ētum, to file. So the other compounds.

Prandeo, prandi, pransum, r. to dine. Rideo, rīsi, rīsum, m. r. d. to laugh.

*Sědeo, sědi, sessum, m. r. to sit. The compounds with monosyllabic prepositions change e into I, in the first root; as, insideo, insedi, insessum. *dissideo, -sedi. So præsideo, and rarely circumsideo.

Söleo, solitus sum and rarely solui, to

be accustomed. § 142, 2. *Sorbeo, sorbui, to suck in. So *exsorbeo: but *resorbeo, -. *absorbeo, -sorbui or -sorpsi.

Spondeo, spopondi, sponst m lo pro mise. See § 163, Rem.

*Strideo, idi, to whiz.

Suādeo, suāsi, suāsum, r. d. to advise Teneo, tenui, tentum, r. d. to hold. The compounds change e into i in the first and second roots; as, detineo, detinui, detentum. *attineo, -tinui. Sc pertinco.

Tergeo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergo, of the third conjugation, is also in use. Tondeo, totondi, tonsum, to shear.

compounds have the perfect tondi. Torqueo, torsi, tortum, d. to twist.

Torreo, torrni, tostum, to roast. *Turgeo, tursi, to swell.

*Urgeo or urgueo, ursi, d. to urge. Video, vidi, visum, m. u. r. d. to see. Voveo, vovi, votum, d. to vow.

Impersonal Verbs of the Second Conjugation. § 169.

Dĕcet, decuit, it becomes. Libet, libuit or libitum est, it pleases, is agreeable.

Licet, licuit or licitum est, it is lawful, or permitted.

Liquet, liquit, it is clear, evident. Miseret, miseruit or miseritum est,

it moves to pity; miseret me, I pity. Oportet, oportuit, it behooves.

Piget, piguit or pigitum est, d. it troubles, grieves.

Pænitet, pænituit, pænitūrus, d. it repents; poenitet me, I regret. Pudet, puduit or puditum est, d.; it

shames; pudet me, I am ashamed. Tædet, tæduit or tæsum est, it disquets or wearies. pertædet, pertæsum est.

Note. Lubet is sometimes written for libet, especially in the comic writers.

§ 170. Deponent Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Făteor, fassus, r. d. p. to confess. The compounds change a into I in the first root, and into e in the third; as, confiteor, confessus, d. p. to acknowledge. *†diffiteor, to deny. profiteor, professus, d. p. to declare. Liceor, licitus, to bid a price.

*Mědeor, d. to cure. Mereor, meritus, to deserve. Misereor, miseritus or misertus, to pita. Polliceor, pollicitus, p. to promise. Reor, ratus, to think, suppose. Tueor, tuitus, d. p. to protect. Vereor, veritus, d. p. to fear.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

§ 171. In the third conjugation, when the first root ends with a consonant, the second root is regularly formed by adding s; when it ends with a vowel, the first and second roots are the same: the third root is formed by adding t; as, carpo, carpsi, carptum; arguo, argui, argūtum.

In annexing s and t, certain changes occur in the final consonant of the root :-

 The palatals c, g, qu, and also h, at the end of the first root, form with s the double letter x in the second root; in the third root, c remains, and the others are changed into e lafore t; as, dico, (dicsi, i. e.), dixi, dictum; regq (regsi, i. e.), rexi, rectum; vého, vexi, rectum; cóquo, coxi, coctum.

Note. Pluo and struo form their second and third roots after the analogy of verbs whose first root ends in a palatal or h.

2. B is changed into p before s and t; as, scribo, scripsi, scriptum.

3. D and t, before s, are either dropped, or changed into s; as, claudo, clausi; $c\bar{c}do$, cessi; mitto, misi. Cf. § 56, I, Rem. 1. After m, p is sometimes inserted before s and t; as, $s\bar{u}mo$, sumpsi, sumptum. R is changed to s before s and t in $g\bar{e}ro$ and dro.

4. Some other consonants are dropped, or changed into s, in certain verbs.

Exc. 1. Many verbs whose first root ends in a consonant, do not add s to form the second 100t.

(a.) Of these, some have the second root the same as the first, but the vowel of the second root, if a monosyllable, is long; as,

Bĭbo. Excūdo, Ico, Mando, Scăbo. Solvo. Verro. Lambo, Strido, Fŏdio, Prehendo, Scando, Verto. Emo, Fŭgio, Lěgo, Psallo, Sīdo, Tollo, Volvo; to which add the compounds of the obsolete cando, fendo, and nuo.

(b.) Some make a change in the first root. Of these, some change a vowel, some drop a consonant, some prefix a reduplication, others admit two or more of these changes; as,

Ago, ēgi. Căpio, cēpi. Făcio, fēci. Findo, fīdi. Frango, frēgi. Fundo, fūdi. Jācio, jēci. Linquo, liqui. Rumpo, rūpi. Scindo, scīdi. Sisto, stīti. Vinco, vīci.

Those which have a reduplication are

Cădo, cĕcĭdi. Cædo, cěcidi. Căno, cĕcĭni. Fallo, fĕfelli. Curro, cucurri. Disco, didici. Păgo, (obs.) pepigi Parco, peperci. Părio, peperi. Pello, pepuli. and pēgi. Pēdo, pěpēdi. Pendo, pependi. Posco, poposci. Pungo, păpăgi. Tundo, tutudi. Tango, tětígi. Tendo, tětendi.

Exc. 2. Some, after the analogy of the second conjugation, add u to the first root of the verb; as,

Alo, alui, etc. Consülo, Gěmo, Răpio, Trêmo, Cŏio, Depso, Gemo, (obs.) Strēpo, Vŏlo, Compesco, Frêmo, Mŏlo, Texo, Vŏmo.

Měto, messui; and pōno, pŏsui; add su, with a change in the root.

Exc. 3. The following, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, add $\bar{\imath}v$ to the first root:—

Arcesso, Cŭpio, Lăcesso, Rŭdo, Tĕro, dropping ĕ. Căpesso, Incesso, Pĕto, Quæro, with a change of r into s.

Exc. 4. The following add v, with a change in the root; those in no and sco dropping n and sc, and those having er before n changing it to $r\bar{c}$ or $r\bar{a}$:—

Cresco, Pasco, Scisco, Sperno, Lino, Sero, Nosco, Quiesco, Cerno, Sterno, Sino, to sow.

Exc. 5. (a.) The third root of verbs whose first root ends in d or t, and some in g, add s, instead of t, to the root, either dropping the d, t, and g, or changing them into s; as, claudo, clausum; defendo, $d\bar{e}$ fensum; $c\bar{e}do$, cessum; flecto, flexum; figo, fixum. But the compounds of Io add \bar{u} ; as, psrdo, $perd\bar{u}tum$.

(b.) The following, also, add s, with a change of the root:-Pello, Excello. Fallo. Spargo, Verro. Percello, Prěmo. Mergo, Vello.

Exc. 6. The following add t, with a change of the root; those having n, nc, ng, nqu, or mp at the end of the first root dropping n and m in the third:-

Gěro, Sĕro, Sperno. Stringo, Cerno. Finge. Uro. Cŏlo, Sterno, Frango, Rumpo, Sisto, Těro, Vinco: to which add the compounds of linguo, and verbs in sco with the second root in v; the latter drop sc before t; as, nosco, novi, notum; except pasco, which drops c only.

Exc. 7. (a.) The following have it:—

Elicio, Molo. Pono, with a thange of on into os. Gěno, (obs. form of gigno,) Vomo, Sino, dropping n.

(b.) The following, like verbs of the fourth conjugation, add it to the first root:-

Arcesso. Pěto. Cŭpio. Těro, dropping ě. Făcesso. La esso. Quæro, with a change of r into s.

For other irregularities occurring in this conjugation, see § 172-174.

§ 172. The following list contains most of the simple verbs, both regular and irregular, in the third conjugation, with such of their compounds as require particular notice:-

Acuo, ăcui, ăcūtum, d. to sharpen. Ago, egi, actum, r. d. to drive. So circumago, cogo, and perago. *ambigo, -, to doubt. So satago. The

other compounds change a into i, in the first root; as, exigo, exegi, exactum, to drive out. *prodigo, -egi, to squander. See § 189, 2.

Alo, ălui, altum, and later ălitum, d. to nourish.

*Ango, anxi, to strangle.
Arguo, argui, argūtum, d. to convict. Arcesso, -cessivi, -cessitum, r. d. to call for. Pass. inf. arcessīri or arcessi.

*Bátuo, bătui, d. to beat. Bibo, bibi, bibitum, d. to drink.

*Cădo, cécidi, căsūrus, to fall. compounds change a into 1, in the first

roct, and drop the reduplication; as, occido, -cidi, -cāsum, r. to set. Cardo, cecidi, casum, r. d. to cut. The compounds change æ into i, and drop

the reduplication; as, occido, -cidi. Cando, (obsolete,) synonymous with candeo of the second conjugation. Hence

accendo, -cendi, -censum, d. to kindle. So incendo, succendo. *Cano, cěcini, d. to sing. The com-

pounds change a into 1; as, *concino,

-cinui. So occino, præcino. *accino, -. So incino, intercino, succi-

no, recino.

*Capesso, -ivi, r. d. to undertake.

Capio, cēpi, captum, r. d. to take. So
antecapio. The other compounds change a into I, in the first root, and into e in the third; as, decipio, decepi, dēceptum.

Carpo, carpsi, carptum, d. to pluck. The compounds change a into e; as,

dēcerpo, dēcerpsi, dēcerptum.

Cēdo, cessi, cessum, r. to yield.
Cello, (obsolete.) excello, -cellui, -celsum, to excel. *antěcello, —. So præcello, recello. percello, -culi.

-culsum, to strike. Cerno, crēvi, crētum, d. to decree.

*Cerno, -. to see.

Cingo, cinxi, cinctum, d. to gird. *Clango, -, to clang.

Claudo, clausi, clausum, r. d. to shut. The compounds change au into ū; as, occlūdo, occlūsi, occlūsum, to shut

*†Claudo, --, to limp.

*†Clěpo, clepsi, rarely clēpi, to steal. Colo, colui, cultum, d. to till. toccilo. -cului, -cultum, d. to hide.

Como, compsi, comptum, to deck. *Compesco, -pescui, to restrain.

Consŭlo, -sŭlui, -sultum, n. r. d. to consult.

Cŏquo, coxi, coctum, m. d. to cook. Crēdo, crēdidi, crēditum, r. d. to believe.

*Cresco, crēvi, to grow. concresco, -crēvi, -crētum.

Cubo is of the first conjugation. 165. *accumbo, -chbui, to lie down. So the other compounds which insert m. *Cūdo, -, to forge. excūdo, -cūdi,

-cūsum, d. to stamp.

Cupio, cupivi, cupitum, d. to desire. Subj. imperf. cupiret. Lucr. 1, 72.

*Curro, cucurri, cursurus, to run. concurro, succurror and transcurro, · drop the reduplication; the other compounds sometimes drop, and sometimes retain it; as, decurro, decurri, and dēcucurri, dēcursum. *antěcurro. So circumcurro.

*Dēgo, dēgi, d. to live.

Demo, dempsi, demptum, r. d. to take

Depso, depsui, depstum, to knead. Dico, dixi, dictum, u. r. d. to say. *Disco, didici, discitūrus, d. to learn.

*Dispesco, —, to separate.
Divido, divisi, divisum, r. d. to divide. Do is of the first conjugation. abdo, -didi, -ditum, d. to hide. So condo, indo. addo, -didi, -ditum, r. d. to add. So dēdo, ēdo, prēdo, reddo, trādo, vendo. †dīdo, -dīdi, -dītum, to distribute. So abdo, subdo. perdo, -didi, -ditum, m. r. d. abscondo, -di

or -didi, -ditum or -sum. Duco, duxi, ductum, m. r. d. to lead. Edo, ēdi, ēsum, m. u. r. d. to eat. Exuo, exui, exutum, d. to strip off.

Emo, ēmi, emptum, r. d. to buy. So coemo. The other compounds change ě to i; as, eximo, -ēmi, -emptum.

Făcesso, -cessi, -cessitum, to execute. Facio, feci, factum, m. u. r. d. to do. Compounded with a preposition, it changes a into i in the first root, and into e in the third, makes -fice in the imperative, and has a regular passive. Compounded with other words, it retains a when of this conjugation, makes fac in the imperative, and has the pas-

sive, fio, factum. See § 180. Lallo, fefelli, falsum, d. to deceive. *refello, -felli, d. to refute.

Fendo, (obsolete.) defendo, -fendo, -fendo, sum, m. u. r. d. to defend. offendo,

-fendi, -frisum, d. to offend. Fero, tuli, latum, r. d. to bear. § 179. A perfect tětůli is rare. Its compounds are affero attuli, allatum;

aufero, abstŭli, ablatum; differo, distăli, dilātum; confero, contăli, collātum; infero, intăli, illātum; offero, obtůli, oblatum; effero, extŭli, elātum; suffero, sustŭli, sublātum; and circum-, per-, trans-, de-, prō-, antĕ-, præfĕro, -tŭli, -lātum. *Fervo, vi, to boil. Cf. ferveo, 2d conj.

Fido, -, fisus, to trust. See § 162, 18. confido, confisus sum or confidi, to diffido, difficus sum, to rely on.

distrust.

Figo, fixi, fixum, r. rarely fictum, to fix. Findo, fidi, fissum, d. to cleave.

Fingo, finxi, fictum, d. to feign.
Flecto, flexi, flexum, r. d. to bend.
*Fligo, flixi, to dash. So confligo.
affligo, -flixi, -flictum, to afflict. So infligo. profligo is of the first conju-

gation.

Fluo, fluxi, fluxum, (fluctum, obs.) r. to flow. Fŏdio, fōdi, fossum, d. to dig. Old

pres. inf. pass. fodiri: so also effŏdīri. Frango, frēgi, fractum, r. d. to break The compounds change a into i, in the

first root; as, infringo, infrēgi, infractum, to break in upon. *Frěmo, frěmui, d. to roar, howl.

Frendo, -, frēsum or fressum, to quash. Frīgo, frixi, frictum, rarely frixum, to roast.

*Fŭgio, fūgi, fŭgĭtūrus, d. to flee. *Fulgo, -, to flash.

Fundo, fūdi, fūsum, r. d. to pour. *Furo, —, to rage.

*Gemo, gemui, d. to groan.

Gero, gessi, gestum, r. d. to bear. Gigno, (obsolete geno,) genui, genitum, r. d. to be get.

*Glisco, —, to grow. *Glūbo, —, to peel. deglūbo, -. -gluptum

Gruo, (obsolete.) *congruo, -grui, to agree. So ingruo.

Ico, īci, ictum, r. to strike.

Imbuo, imbui, imbūtum, d. to imbue. *Incesso, -cessivi or -cessi, to attack. †Induo, indui, indutum, to put on.

Jacio, jēci, jactum, d. to cast. The compounds change a into I in the first root, and into e in the third. (\$-163, Exc. 3); as, rejicio, rejeci, rejectum.

Jungo, junxi, junctum, r. d. to join. Licesso, -cessivi, -cessitum, r. d. to pro-

voke.

Lăcio, (obsolete.) The compounds change ă into i; as, allicio, -lexi, -lectum, d. to allure. So illicio, pellicio. Elicio, -licui, Leitum, to draw out.

Lædo, læsi, læsum, m. r. to hurt. The compounds change æ into ī; as, illīdo, illīsi, illīsum, to dash against.

*Lambo, lambi, to lick.

Lego, legi, lectum, r. d. to read. So allego, perlego, prælego, relego, sublego, and translego; the other compounds change è into i; as, colligo, collegi, collectum, to collect. But the following add s to form the second root; § 171, 1; diligo, -lexi, -lectum, to love. iutelligo, -lexi, -lectum, u. r. d. to understand. negligo, -lexi, -lectum, r. d. to neglect.

Lingo, -, linetum, d. to lick. *delin-

go, -, to lick up.

Lino, līvi or lēvi, litum, d. to daub. *Linquo, liqui, d. to leare. relinquo, -līqui, -lictum, r.d. delinquo, -līqui, lictum. So derelinquo.

Lūdo, lūsi, lūsum, m. r. to play. *Luo, ini, luiturus, d. to atone.

abluo, -lui, -lutum, r. d. diluo, -lui, -luitum, d. So eluo. Mando, mandi, mansum, d. to chew.

Mergo, mersi, mersum, r. d. to dip. immergo; but pres. inf. pass. immergeri, Col. 5, 9, 3.

Měto, messui, messum, d. to reap. Mětuo, metui, metūtum, d. to fear.

*Mingo, minxi, mictum, (sup.) to make water.

Minuo, minui, minūtum, d. to lessen. Mitto, mīsi, missum, r. d. to send. Molo, molui, molitum, to grind.

Mungo, (obsolete.) emungo, -munxi, -munctum, to wipe the nose.

Necto, nexi, nexum, d. to knit. innecto, -nexui, -nexum. So annecto,

connecto. *Ningo or -guo, ninxi, to snow.

Nosco, novi, notum, d. to learn. agnosco, -novi, -nitum, d. to recognize. cognosco, -novi, -nitum, u. r. d. to know. So recognosco. *internosco, novi, to distinguish between. præcognosco, -, præcognitum, to fore-know. *dignosco, -. So prænosco. ignosco, -novi, -notum, d to pardon.

Nube, nupsi, or nupta sum, nuptum,

m. r. to marry.

Nuo, (obsolete,) to nod. *abuno, -nui, -nuitūrus, d. to refuse. *annuo, -nui. So innuo, renno.

*Olo, ŏlui, to smell.

Pando, -, passum or pansum, to open. So expando. dispando, —, -pansum. Pago, (obs. the same as paco whence paeiscor,) pepigi, pactum, to bargain: hence

Pango, panxi (7 pēgi, pactum panctū-

rus, d. to drive in. compingo, -pēgi, -pactum. So impingo. *oppango, -pēgi. *depango, -. So repango, suppingo.

*Parco, peperci rarely parsi, parsūrus, to spare. Some of the compounds change a to e; as, *comparco or comperco. *imperco, -.

Pario, peperi, partum, pariturus, d. to The compounds are of bring forth. the fourth conjugation.

Pasco, pāvi, pastum, m. r. d. to feed. Pesto, —, pexum, and pectitum, d. to comb. So depecto. repecto.

*Pēdo, pěpēdi. *oppēdo, -Pello, pepuli, pulsum, d. to drive.

compounds are not reduplicated. Pendo, pěpendi, pensum, r. to weigh. The compounds drop the reduplication.

See § 163, Exc. 1. Pěto, pětīvi, pětītum, m. u. r. d. to ask. Pinge, pinxi, pictum, to paint.

Pinso, pinsi, pinsitum, pinsum or pistum, to pound.

*Plange, planxi, plancturus, to lament. Plaude, plausi, plausum, d. to clap, ap-plaud. So applaudo. *tcircnmplaudo, -The other compounds change au into ō.

Plecto, -, plexum, d. to twine.

*Pluo, plui or plūvi, to rain. Pono, posui, (anciently posivi), positum, r. d. to place.

*† Perricio, -, to offer sacrifice.

*Posco, poposci, d. to demand. Prehendo, } -di, -sum, r. d. to seize.

Premo, pressi, pressum, r. d. to press. The compounds change e into 1, in the first root; as, imprimo, impressi,

impressum, to impress. Promo, prompsi, promptum, r. d. to bring out.

*Psallo, psalli, to play on a stringed instrument.

Pungo, păpăgi, punctum, to prick. compungo, -punxi, -punctum. 80 dispungo, expungo. interpungo, -, -punctum. *repungo, -.

Quæro, quæsīvi, quæsītum, m. r. d. to seek. The compounds change æ into ī; as, requiro, requisīvi, requisītum, to seek again.

Quătio, —, quassum, to shake. The compounds change quă into cu; as, concutio, -cussi, -cussum, d. discŭtio, -cussi, -cussum, r. d.

Quiesco, quievi, quietum, r. d. to rest. Rādo, rāsi, rāsum, d. to shave.

Răpio, răpui, raptum, r. d. to snatck, The compounds change a into 1 in the

first and second roots, and into e in the third; as, diripio, -ripui, -reptum, m. r. So eripio and præripio.

Rego, rexi, rectum, r. d. to rule. compounds change & into i, in the first root; as, dirigo, direxi, directum. *pergo, (for perrigo), perrexi, r. to go forward. surgo (for surrigo), surrexi, surrectum, r. d. to rise. So porrigo (for prorigo), to stretch out.

*Repo, repsi, to creep. Rodo, rosi, rosnm, r. to gnaw. ab-, ar-, e-, ob-, præ-rodo, want the perfect.

*Rudo, rudīvi, to bray.

Rumpo, rūpi, ruptum, r. d. to break. Ruo, rui, rutum, ruiturus, to fall. dīruo, -rni, -rutum, d. So obruo.

*corruo, -rui. So irruo. The com-*Săpio, sapīvi, to be wise. pounds change à into i; as, *resipio, -sīpīvi or -sīpui. *desīpio, -, to be silly.

*+ Scabo, scabi, to scratch.

Scalpo, scalpsi, scalptum, to engrave.

Sălo or sallo, - salsum, to salt. *Scando, -, d. to climb. The compounds change a into e; as, ascendo, ascendi, ascensum, r. d. descendo, descendi, (anciently descendidi,) descensum.

Scindo, scidi, (anciently sciscidi), scissum, d. to cut.

Scisco, scivi, scitum, d. to ordain. Scribo, scripsi, scriptum, r. d. to write. Sculpo, sculpsi, sculptum, d. to carve. Sero, sevi, satum, r. d. to sow. consero, -sēvi, -sītum. So insēro, r., and obsěro.

Sĕro, -, sertum, to entwine. Its compounds have -serui; as, assero, -serui, -sertum, r. d.

*Serpo, serpsi, to creep.

*Side, sidi, to settle. Its compounds have generally sēdi, sessum, from sedeo. *Šino, sīvi, sītūrus, to permit. desīno, desivi, desitum, r. § 284, R. 3, Exc. 2.

Sisto, stiti, statum, to stop. *absisto, -stiti. So the other compounds; but circumsisto wants the perfect.

Solvo, solvi, sŏlūtum, r. d. to loose. Spargo, sparsi, sparsum, r. d. to spread. The compounds change a into e; as, respergo, -spersi, -spersum; but with circum and in, a sometimes remains.

Specio, (obsolete.) The compounds change è into i, in the first root; as, aspicio, aspexi, aspectum, d. to look inspicio, inspexi, inspectum. r. d.

Sperno, sprivi, sprētum, d. to despise. *TSpuo, twi, to spit. *respuo, resvii. d.

Stătuo, stătui, stătūtum, d. to place The compounds change ă into 1; as, instituo, institui, institutum, to institute.

Sterno, strāvi, strātum, d. to strew. *Sternuo, sternui, to sneeze.

*Sterto, -, to snore. *†desterto, destertui.

*Stinguo, -, to extinguish. distinguo, distinxi, distinctum. So exstinguo.

*Strepo, strepui, to make a noise. *Strido, stridi, to creak.

Stringo, strinxi, strictum, r. d. to bind or tie tight.

Struo, struxi, structum, d. to build.

Sūgo, suxi, suctum, to suck. Sūmo, sumpsi, sumptum, r. d. to take. Suo, -, sutum, d. to sew. So consuo. dissuo. insuo, -sui, sūtum.

suo, -. Tăgo, (very rare), to touch. HenceTango, tětigi, tactum, r. d. to touch. The compounds change a into i in the

first root, and drop the reduplication; as, contingo, contigi, contactum, r. Těgo, texi, tectum, r. d. to cover.

*Temno, —, d. to despise. contemno, -tempsi, -temptum, d.

Tendo, tetendi, tentum or tensum, to stretch. The compounds drop the reduplication; as, extendo, -tendi, -tentuin or -tensum. So in-, os-, and retendo. detendo has tensum. other compounds have tentum.

*†Tergo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Ter-geo, of the second conjugation has the same second and third roots.

Těro, trīvi, trītum, d. to rub.

Texo, texui, textum, d. to weave. Tingo or tinguo, tinxi, tinctum, r. d.

to moisten, tinge.

*Tollo, anciently tětňli, rarely tolli, d. to raise. The perfect and supine sustŭli and sublatum from suffero take the place of the perfect and supine of tollo and sustollo. *sustollo, -, r. to raise up, to take away. *attoilo, So extollo.

Trăho, traxi, tractum, r. d. to draw.

*Tremo, tremui, d. to tremble. Tribuo, tribui, tribūtum, r. d. to as-

Trūdo, trūsi, trūsum, to thrust.

Tundo, tătădi, tunsum or tūsum, to The compounds drop the redubeat. plication, and have tusum. Yet contunsum, detunsum, obtunsum, and retunsum, are also found.

Ungo, (or -guo), unxi, unctum, d. to

anoint.

Uro, ussi, ustum, d. to burn. *Vādo, —, to go. So supervādo. The other compounds have vāsi; as, *evādo, evāsi, r. So pervādo; also invā-

do, r. d. Věho, vexi, vectum, r. to carry.

Vello, velli or vulsi, vulsum, d. to pluck. So avello, d., divello, evello, d., re-vello, revelli, revulsum. The other vello, revelli, revulsum. compounds have velli only, except intervello, which has vulsi.

*Vergo, versi, to incline. Verro, -, versum, d. to brush. Verto, verti, versum, r. d. to turn. See

§ 174, Note.

Vinco, vici, victum, r. d. to conquer. *Viso, —, d. to visit.

*Vīvo, vixi, victūrus, d. to live. *Volo, volui, velle (for volere), to be willing. See § 178. Volvo, volvi, volūtum, d. to roll. Věmo, věmui, věmitum, r. d. to vomit

REMARK. Those verbs in io (and deponents in ior), of the third conjugation, which are conjugated like capio (page 115) are, capio, capio, facio, fodio, fugio, jacio, pario, quatio, rapio, supio, compounds of lacio and specio, and gradior, molior, patior, and morior: but compare morior in § 174, and orior, and pottor in § 175.

Inceptive Verbs.

Inceptive verbs in general either want the third root, or adopt that of their primitives: (see § 187, II, 2). Of those derived from nours and adjectives, some want the second root, and some form it by adding u to the root of the primitive.

In the following list, those verbs to which s is added, have a simple verb in use from which they are formed:-

*Acesco, acui, s. to grow sour.

*Ægresco, to grow sick.

*Albesco, -, s. to grow white. *Alesco, -, s. to grow. coalesco, -alui,

-alitum, to grow together.

*Ardesco, arsi, s. to take fire. *Aresco, —, s. to grow dry. *exares-co, -arui. So inaresco, peraresco.

*Augesco, auxi, s. to increase.

*Calesco, călui, s. to grow warm.

*Calvesco, —, s. to become bald. *Candesco, candui, s. to grow white.

*Cānesco, cānui, s. to become hoary.

*Clāresco, clārui, s. to become bright.

*Condormisco, dormivi, s. to go to sleep.

*Conticesco, -ticui, to become silent. *Crebresco, crēbui and crebrui, to in-

crease.

*Crūdesco, crūdni, to become violent.

*Ditesco, —, to grow rich. *Dulcesco, —, to grow sweet.

*Düresco, dürni, to grow hard. *Evilesco, evilui, to become worthless.

*Extimesco, timui, to fear greatly.

*Fatisco, -, to gape. *Flaccesco, flaccui, s. to wilt.

* l'ervesco, ferbui, s. to grow hot.

*Floresco, florui, s. to begin to flourish. *Fracesco, fracui, to grow rancid.

*Frigesco, -. s. to grow cold. *per-

frigesco, frixi. So refrigesco.

*Frondesco, -, s. to put forth leaves.

*Fruticesco, —, to put forth shoots. *Gĕlasco, —, s. to freeze. So *congĕlasco, s. to congeal.

*Gemisco, -, s. to begin to sigh.

*Gemmasco, —, to begin to bud. *Gěněrasco, —, s. to be produced. *Grandesco, —, to grow large. *Gravesco, —, to grow heavy.

*Hæresco, —, s. to adhere. *Hěbesco, —, s. to grow dull. *Horresco, horrui, s. to grow rough.

*Hūmesco, —, s. to grow moist. *Ignesco, —, to become inflamed. *Indŏlesco, -dŏlui, d. to be grieved.

*Intolesco, —, to become haughty.
*Integrasco, — to be renewed.
*Júvěnesco, —, to grow young.
*Languesco, langui, s. to grow languid.

*Lapidesco, —, to become stone. *Latesco, —, to grow broad. *Latesco, to be concealed. s. *delitoaco

-litui; *oblitesco, -litui.

*Lentesco, —, to become soft. *Liquesco, —, s. to become liquid. *deliquesco, -licui.

*Lucesco, -, s. to grow light, to dawn

*Littesco, —, s. to become muddy.
*Macesco, —, s. } to grow lean.

*remacresco, -macrui.

*Madesco, madui, s. to grow moist.

- *Marcesco, -, s. to pine away.
- *Mātūresco, mātūrui, to ripen. *Misěresco, misěrui, s. to pity.
- *Mītesco, -, to grow mild.
- *Mollesco, —, to grow soft.
- *Mutesco, -, to become dumb. *obmūtesco, obmūtui. *Nigresco, nigrui, s. to grow black.
- *Nitesco, nitui, s. to grow bright.
- *Notesco, notui, to become known. *Obbrūtesco, —, to become brutish.
- *Obdormisco, -, s. to fall asleep. *Obsurdesco, -surdui, to grow deaf. *Occallesco, -callui, to become callous.
- *Olesco, (scarcely used.) *abŏlesco, -ŏlēvi, s. to cease. ădolesco, -ŏlēvi, -ultum, s. to grow up. exŏlesco, -ŏlēvi, -ŏlētum, to grow out of date. So obsolesco, inolesco, -olevi, -oli-
- tum, d. to grow in or on. *Pallesco, pallui, s. to grow pale.
- *Pătesco, pătui, s. to be opened.
- *Păvesco, pāvi, s. to grow fearful.
- "Pertimesco, -timni, d. to fear greatly.

- *Princesco, -timin, a. o fear greams.

 *Princesco, -, to grow fat.

 *Princesco, -, to come to maturity.

 *Pritcesco, -, to become a boy.

 *Pritcesco, -, s.

 *Putresco, -, s.

 *Patresco, -, to become putrid.

 *Räresco, -, to become thin.

 *Rësipisco, -sipui, s. to recover one's
- *Rīgesco, rīgui, s. to grow cold.
- *Rubesco, rubui, s. to growred. *ērubesco, -rŭbui, d.

Apiscor, aptus, to get. The compounds change a into i in the first root, and into e in the third; as, adipiscor,

adeptus. So indipiscor. Expergiscor, experrectus, to awake. *Fatiscor, to gape or crack open. The compounds change à into ě; as, dēf ě-

tiscor, -fessus. Fruor, fruitus or fructus, fruitūrus, d.

to enjoy.

Fungor, functus, r. d. to perform. Gradior, gressus, to walk. The com-pounds change a into e; as, aggredior, The comaggressus, r. d. Inf. pres. aggredi and aggredīri; so, progredi and progredīri; and pres. ind. egredītur, Plaut.

*Irascor, to be angry. Labor, lapsus, r. to fall.

*Liquor, to melt, flow.

Loquor, locutus, r. d. to speak.

Miniscor, (obsolete.) comminiscor, commentus, p. to invent. *rěminiscor, to rem mber.

*Sānesco, —, to become sound. *con sānesco, -sānui.

- *Sěnesco, sěnui, s. d. to grow old. & consenesco.
- *Sentisco, —, s. to perceive. *Siccesco, —, to become dry.
- *Silesco, silui, s. to grow silent. *Solidesco, -, to become solid.
- *Sordesco, sordui, s. to become filthy. *Splendesco, splendui, s. to become
- bright. *Spūmesco, —, to begin to foam. *Stěrřlesco, —, to become barren.
- *Stupesco, stupui, s. to become aston

ished. Suesco, suēvi, suētum, s. to become ac-

- customed. *Tābesco, tābni, s. to waste away.
- *Teneresco and -asco, -, to become tender.
- *Těpesco, těpui, s. to grow warm. *Torpesco, torpui, s. to grow torpid.
- *Tremisco, -, s. to begin to tremble.
- *Tumesco, tumui, s. } to begin to swell.
- *Turgesco, --, s. *Uvesco, -, to become moist.
- Nălesco, —, s. to become strong. *Vānesco, -, vanish. *ēvānesco,
- ēvānui.
- *Větěrasco, větěrávi, to grow old.
- *Viresco, virui, s. to grow green. *Vivesco, vixi, s. to come to life. *revīvisco, -vixi.

§ 174. Deponent Verbs of the Third Conjugation.

Mŏrior, (mŏri, rarely mŏrīri,) mortuus, moriturus, d. to die. So emoriri, Plaut. for emŏri.

Nanciscor, nactus or nanctus to obtain. Nascor, natus, nascitūrus, u. to be born. Nitor, nixus or nīsus, nīsūrus, to lean

upon. Obliviscor, oblitus, d. p. to forget. Păciscor, pactus, d. to bargain.

dēpāciscor. Pătior, passus, r. d. to suffer. perpetior

From plecto, to twine, come, amplector, amplexus, d. p. complector, complexus, p. So circumplector.

Proficiscor, profectus, r. to depart. Queror, questus, m. u. d. to complain.

*Ringor, to snarl.

Sequor, secutus, r.d. to follow. Tuor, tūtus, to protect.

*Vescor, d. to eat. Ulciscor, ultus, m. d. p. to avenge.

Utor, ūsus, r. d. to use.

Note. Devertor, prævertor, revertor, compounds of verto, are used as deponents in the present and imperfect tenses; reversor also, sometimes, in the perfect.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

§ 175. Verbs of the fourth conjugation regularly form their second root in iv, and their third in it; as, audio, audivi, audītum.

The following list contains most regular verbs of this conjugation :--

Audio, -īvi or -ii, m. u. r. d. to hear. *Cio, cīvi, to excite. Ct. cieo, § 168. Condio, -īvi or -ii, to season. Custodio, -ivi or -ii, d. to guard. *Dormio, -ivi or -ii, m. r. d. to sleep. Erudio, -ivi or -ii, d. to instruct. Expédio, -īvi or -ii, d. to disentangle. Finio, -ivi or -ii, r. d. to finish. *Gestio, -īvi or -ii, to exult; desire. Impědio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to entangle. Insanio, -ivi or -ii, to be mad. Irretio, -īvi or ii, to ensnare. Lēnio, -īvi or ii, d. to mitigate. Mollio, -īvi or -ii, d. to soften.

*Mūgio, -īvi or -ii, to bellow. Mūnio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to fortify. Mūtio, -īvi, to mutter. Nutrio, -īvi or -ii, d. to nourish. Partio, -īvi or -ii, r. to divide. Polio, -īvi, d. to polish. Pūnio, -īvi or -ii, d. to punish. Rédimio, -īvi, to crown. Seio, -īvi, u. r. to know. Servio, -īvi or -ii, m. r. d. to serve. Sopio, -īvi or -ii, to lull asleep. Stabilio, -īvi or -ii, to establish. Tinnio, -īvi or -ii, r. to tinkle. Vestio, -īvi or -ii, to clothe.

§ 176. The following list contains those verbs of the fourth conjugation which form their second and third roots irregularly, and those which want either or both of them.

REMARK. The principal irregularity in verbs of the fourth conjugation arises from following the analogy of those verbs of the third conjugation whose first root ends in a consonant; as, sepio, sepsi, septum. A few become irregular by syncope; as, renio, reni, rentum.

Amicio, -ui or -xi, amictum, d. to clothe. *Balbūtio, -, to stammer.

Bullio, ii, itum, to bubble. *Cæcūtio, -, to be dim-sighted.

*Cambio, -, to exchange. *Dementio, -, to be mad.

Effūtio, -, to babble.

Eo, īvi or ii, ītum, r. d. to go. compounds have only ii in the perfect, except obeo, præeo, and subeo, which have ivi or ii. All the compounds want the supine and perfect participles, except adeo, ambio, ineo, obeo, prætěreo, subeo, circumeo or circuca rědeo, transeo, and *†vēneo, vēnii r. (from venum eo), to be sold.

Farcio, farsi, fartum or farctum, to The compounds generally change a to e; as, refercio, -fersi, -fertum, but con- and ef-, -farcio and -fercio.

Fastīdio, -ii, -ītum, d. to loathe. *Ferio, -, d. to st ike.

*Fěrōcio, -, to be fierce.

Fulcio, fulsi, fultum, d. to prop up.

*Gannio, —, to yelp, bark.
*Glōcio, —, to cluck as a hen.
*Glūtio, īvi, or glūtii, to swallow.

Grandio, -, to make great. *Grunnio, grunnii, to grunt. Haurio, hausi, rar. haurii, haustum, rar. hausītum, haustūrus, hausūrus,

 u. d. to draw. *Hinnio, —, to neigh.

*Ineptio, —, to trifle. *Laseīvio, lascīvii, to be wanton.

*Ligurio, ligurii, to feed delicately. *Lippio, -, r. to be blear-eyed.

*Obedio, obedii, r. to obey.

Pario is of the third conjugation, but its compounds are of the fourth, changing ă to e; as, ăperio, ăperui, ăpertum, r. d. to open. So operio, d. comperio comperi, compertum, rarely dep. comperior, to find out. So reperio

Păvio, —, păvītum, to beat. *Prūrio, —, to itch.

Queo, quivi or quii, quitum, to be able. So *něqueo.

*Raucio, —, r. to be hoarse. *Rŭgio, —, to roar as a lion. Sævio, sævii, ītum, r. to rage.

*Sāgio, —, to perceive keenly. *Sălio, sălui or sălii, to leap.

Thecompounds change a into I; as, *absilio, -. So circumsilio. *assilio, -ui. So dissilio, insilio. *desilio, -ui or -ii. So exsilio, resilio, subsilio. *transil-

io, -ui or -īvi, d. So prūsilio. Sano, -, itum, r. d. to salt.

Sancio, sanxi, sancītum or sanctum, d. to ratify, sanction.

Sarrio, -ivi or -ui, sarritum, d. to weed, hoe. *Scătūrio, —, to gush out. Sentio, sensi, sensum, r. to feel. Sēpēlio, sepēlīvi or -ii, rar. sepēli, se pultum, r. d. to bury. epio, sepsi, septum, d. to hedge in. *Singultio, ---, to sob, hiccup. *Sitio, sitii, to thirst. Suffio, -ii, -itum, d. to fumigate. *Tussio, -, to cough. *Vāgio, vāgii, to cry. Věnio, vēni, ventum, r. to come.

Vincio, vinxi, vinctum, r. d. to bind.

Sarcio, sarsi, sartum, d. to patch.

NOTE. Desiderative verbs want both the second and third roots, except these three; -* esurio, -, esuritus, r. to desire to eat; *nupturio, -ivi, to desire to marry; *parturio, -ivi, to be in travail. See § 187, II. 3.

§ 177. Deponent Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.

Assentior, assensus, r. d. p. to assent. Blandior, blanditus, to flatter. Largior, largitus, p. to give, bestow. Mentior, mentitus, r. p. to lie. Mētior, mensus or mētītus, d. p. to measure. Mölior, mölitus, d. to strive, toil. Ordior, orsus, d. p. to begin. Orior, ortus, oriturus, d. to spring up. Except in the present infinitive, this

verb seems to be of the third conjuga-

tion.

Pěrior, (obs. whence pěritns.) ex-pěrior, expertus, r. d. to try. oppěrior, oppertus or opperitus, d. to wait for. Partior, partitus, d. to divide. Potior, potitus, r. d. to obtain, enjoy.

In the poets the present indicative and imperfect subjunctive are sometimes of the third conjugation. Sortior, sortītus, r. to cast lots.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 178. Irregular verbs are such as deviate from the common forms in some of the parts derived from the first root.

They are sum, volo, fero, edo, fio, eo, queo, and their compounds.

Sum and its compounds have already been conjugated. See § 153. In the conjugation of the rest, the parts which are irregular are fully exhibited, but a synopsis only, of the other parts is, in general, given. Some parts of volo and of its compounds are wanting.

 Volo is irregular only in the present of the indicative and infinitive, and in the present and imperfect of the subjunctive.

REMARK. It is made irregular partly by syncope, and partly by a change in the vowel of the root. In the present infinitive also and in the imperfect subjunctive, after è was dropped, r following l was changed into l; as, velère (velre) velle ; velerem (velrem) vellem.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. vď-lŏ, vel'-lě, vŏl'-u-i, to be willing, to wish.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. vò'-lo, vis, vult;

P. vol'-u-mus, vul'-tis, vo'-lunt. Imperf. vŏ-lē'-bam, vŏ-lē'-bās, etc.

vo'-lam, vo'-les, etc. Fut.

Perf. vŏl'-u-i. Plup. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-ram Fut. perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rð.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

S. vě'-lim, vě'-līs, vě'-lǐt;

P. vě-li'-mus, vě-li'-tis, vě'-lint.

Imperf: S. vel'-lem, vel'-les, vel'-let; P. vel-lē'-mŭs, vel-lē'-tĭs, vel'-lent.

Perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. vŏl-u-is'-sem.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. vel'-lĕ. Perf. vŏl-u-is'-sĕ. Pres. vo'-lens.

NOTE. Volt and voltis, for vult and vultis, and vin', for visne are found in Plautus and other ancient authors.

 Nolo is compounded of the obsolete ne (for non) and volo. The v of volo after ne is dropped, and the vowels (e o) are contracted into ō.

Pres. Indic. nō'-lŏ,

Pres. Infin. nol'-lĕ.

Perf. Indic.

nol'-u-i, to be unwilling.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. no'-lo, non'-vis, non'-vult;

P. nol'-ŭ-mŭs, non-vul'-tis, no'-lunt. Imperf. no-le'-bam, -bas, -bat, etc.

nō'-lam, -lēs, -lět, etc.

Perf. nõl'-u-ī. Plup. nō-lu'-ĕ-ram.

Fut. perf. nō-lu'-ĕ-rŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

S. nō'-lim, nō'-līs, nō'-līt;

P. nō-lī'-mus, nō-lī'-tis, nō'-lint.

Imperf. S. nol'-lem, nol'-les, nol'-let; P. nol-le'-mus, nol-le'-tis, nol'-lent.

Perf. nō-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. nol-u-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.

Present.

Future.

Sing. 2. no-li; Plur. no-li-te. Sing. 2. no-li-to, Plur. nol-i-to-te, nō-lī'-tō:

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. nol'-lĕ. Perf. nol-u-is'-se. Pres. no'-lens.

NOTE. In non-vis, non-vult, etc. of the present, non takes the place of ne, but nevis ard nevolt also occur in Plautus.

3. $M\bar{a}lo$ is compounded of $m\bar{a}gis$ and $v\bar{o}lo$. In composition $m\bar{a}gis$ drops its final syllable, and $v\bar{o}lo$ its v. The vowels $(\bar{a}\ \bar{o})$ are then contracted into \bar{a} .

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. mā'-lŏ, mal'-lĕ, māl'-u-i, to prefer.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. mā'-lō, mā'-vis, mā'-vult; Perf. mā'-u-ī.
P. māl'-ŭ-mŭs, mā-vul'-tīs, mā'-lunt. Plup. mā-lu'-ĕ-

P. māl'-ŭ-mŭs, mā-vul'-tĭs, mā'-lunt. Plup. mā-lu'-ĕ-ram. Imperf. mā-lē'-bam, -bās, etc. Fut. perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rð.

Fut. mā'-lam, -lēs, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. S. mā'-lim, mā'-līs, mā'-līt; Perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rim.

P. mā-li'-mūs, mā-li'-tīs, mā'-lint. Plup. māl-u-is'-sem. Imperf. S. mal'-lem, mal'-lēs, mal'-lēt;

P. mal-le'-mus, mal-le'-tis, mal'-lert.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. mal'-lě. Perf. māl-u-is'-sě.

Nore. Māvolo, māvolunt; māvolet; māvēlim, māvēlis, māvēlit; and māvellem; for mālo, mālunt, etc., occur in Plautus.

§ 179. Fero is irregular in two respects:—1. Its second and third roots are not derived from the first, but from otherwise obsolete verbs, viz. tillo for tollo, and tlao, sup. tlatum, by aphæresis, latum:—2. In the present infinitive active, in the imperfect subjunctive, and in certain parts of the present indicative and imperative, of both voices, the connecting vowel is omitted. In the present infinitive passive, r is doubled.

ACTIVE VOICE. PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Indic. fe'-rŏ, (to bear.)
Pres. Infin. fer'-rĕ,
Perf. Indic. tü'-li,
Perf. Part. lā'-tūs.

Supine. la'-tum.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

S fế'-rỗ, fers, fert; fế'-rỗr, fer'-ris or -rễ, fer'-từr; fếr'-ĭ-mǔs, fer'-tis, fế'-run'-tǔn

 Imperf.
 fě-rë'-bam.
 Imperf.
 fě-rë'-bár.

 Fut.
 fë-ram, -rës, etc.
 Fut.
 fë'-rïr -rë'-ris or -rë'-rë, eta

 Perf.
 tü'lë-ram.
 Plup.
 lä'-tüs sum or fu'-ë-ram.

 lä'-tüs ë'-ram or fu'-ë-ram.
 Plup.
 lä'-tüs ë'-ram or fu'-ë-ram.

Fut. perf. tŭ'-lĕ-rŏ Fut. perf. lā'-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

fe'-ram, -ras, etc. Imperf. fer'-rem, -res, etc. Perf. tŭ'-lĕ-rim. Plup. tŭ-lis'-sem.

Pres. fě-răr, -ra-ris or -rii rě, etc. Imperf. fer'-rer, -re'-ris, etc. Perf. la'-tus sim or fu'-e-rim. Plup. lā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. S. fer, P. fer'-tĕ. Fut. S. fer'-to, P. fer-to'-te,

Pres. S. fer'-re, P. fe-rim'-i-ni.

fer'-to; fe-run'-to. Fut. S. fer'-tor, F. (fe-rem'-i-ni.) fer'-tŏr. fě-run'-tŏr.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. fer'-re. Perf. tŭ-lis'-sĕ. Fut. lā-tū'-rus es'-se. Pres. fer'-rī. Perf. la'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se,

Fut. la'-tum i'-ri.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. fĕ'-rens. Fut. lā-tū'-rŭs.

Perf. lā'-tŭs. Fut. fĕ-ren'-dŭs.

GERUND.

fĕ-ren'-dī, etc.

SUPINES.

Former, la'-tum.

Latter. lā'-tū.

Note. In the comic writers the following reduplicated forms are found in parts derived from the second root, viz. tetali, tetaliti, tetaliti, tetalirunt; tetaliro, tetulerit; tetulissem, and tetulisse.

§ 180. Fig., 'to become,' is properly a neuter verb of the third conjugation, having only the parts derived from the first root; but it is used also as a passive of facio, from which it takes those parts of the passive which are derived from the third root, together with the participle in dus. The infinitive present has been changed from the regular form fiere to fieri.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.

fì'-ŏ. fi -ĕ-rī, fac'-tus, to be made or to become.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. fi'-ō, fis, fit; Perf. fac'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī. P. fi-mus, fī'-tis, fī'-unt. Plup. fac'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram. Imperf. fi-ë'-bam, fi-ë'-bas, etc. Fut. perf. fac'-tus e'-ro or fu'-e-ro. Fut. fi'-am, fi'-es, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres fi'-am, fi'-as, etc. Imp. fi'-e-rem, -e'-res, etc.

Perf. fae'-tús sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. fae'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Sing. fī; Plur. fī'-tě.

Pres. fĭ'-ĕ-rī.

Perf. fac'-tūs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ.

Fut. fac'-tum ī'-rī.

PARTICIPLES.

Perf. fac'-tŭs.

Fut. fă-ci-en'-dŭs.

SUPINE.

Latter. fac'-tū.

Note. The compounds of facio which retain a, have also f io in the passive; as, calefacio, to warm; passive, calef io; but those which change a into i form the passive regularly. (Cf. facio in the list, § 172.) Yet confit, defit, and infit, occur. See § 183, 12, 13, 14.

§ 181. Edo, to eat, is conjugated regularly as a verb of the third conjugation; but in the present of the indicative, imperative, and infinitive moods, and in the imperfect of the subjunctive, it has also forms similar to those of the corresponding tenses of sum:—Thus.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imperfect.

S. ĕd'-ĕ-rem, ĕd'-ĕ-rēs, ĕd'-ĕ-rēt, (or es'-sem, es'-sēs, es'-sēt); P. ĕd-ĕ-rē'-mūs, ĕd-ē-rē'-tīs, ĕd'-ĕ-rent, (or es-sē'-nūs, es-sē'-tīs, es'-sent).

IMPERATIVE.

Pres, S. ĕ'-dĕ, P. ĕd'-ī-tĕ,

(or ēs; es'-tě).

Fut. S. ěd'-ĭ-tō, P. ěd-ĭ-tō'-tě, ě-dun'-tð.
(or es'-tō, es-tō'-tè).

INFINITIVE.

Pres ĕd'-ĕ-rĕ, (or es'-sĕ).

PASSIVE.

Pres. ĕd'-ĭ-tŭr, (or es'-tŭr). Imperf. ĕd-ĕ-rē'-tŭr, (or es-sē'-tŭr).

NOTE. (a.) In the present subjunctive, ědim, ědis, etc., are found, for ědam ědās. etc.

(b.) In the compounds of êdo, also, forms resembling those of sum occur Ambêdo has the participles ambens and ambēsus; comêdo has comēsus, comesarus and rarely comestus; and adêdo and exêdo have adesus and exessus. . § 182. Eo is irregular in the parts which, in other verbs are formed from the first root, except the imperfect subjunctive and the present infinitive. In these, and in the parts formed from the second and third roots, it is a regular verb of the fourth conjugation

Note. Eo has no first root, and the parts usually derived from that root, consist, in this verb, of terminations only.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Perf. Part.
e'-ŏ, î'-rĕ, î'-vī, î'-tum, to go.

....

INFINITIVE.

GERUND.

INDICATIVE.

 Pres.
 S
 e'-ō, is, it;
 Fut.
 i'-bŏ, i'-bĭs, i'-bĭs, i'-bit, etc.

 P. i'-mĭs, i'-tis, e'-unt.
 Perf.
 i'-bĭ, i-vis'-ti, i'-vit, etc.

 Imperf. S. i'-bai'-mỹs, etc.
 Plup.
 iv'-ē-rā, iv'-ē-rīs, etc.

 P. i-bā'-mỹs, etc.
 Fut. perf. iv'-ē-rō, iv'-ē-rīs, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. e´-am, e´-ās, e´-āt, etc. Perf. īv´-ĕ-rim, īv´-ĕ-rīs, etc. Imperf. ī´-rem, ī´-rēs, ī´-rēt, etc. Plup. ī-vis´-sem, ī-vis´-sēs, etc

IMPERATIVE.

 Pres. S. î,
 P. i'-tē.
 Pres. i'-rĕ.

 Fut.
 2. î'-tŏ,
 ī-tō'-tĕ,
 Perf. ī-vis'-sĕ.

 3. î'-tŏ;
 e-un'-tŏ.
 Fut. I-tū'-rŭs es'-sĕ.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. i'-ens, (gen. e-un'-tīs.) e-un'-dī, Fut. i-tū'-rūs. a, um. e-un'-dō, etc.

REMARK 1. In some of the compounds the forms eam, ies, iet occur, though rathly, in the future; as, redeam, redies, ablet, exiet, prodient. Istis, issem, and iese, are formed by contraction for insists, irissen, and ieises. See § 162, 7.

Rem. 2. In the passive voice are found the infinitive iri, and the third persons singular itur, ibūtur, itum est, etc.; eūtur, irētur, eundum est, etc., which are used impersonally. See § 184, 2, (a.)

REM. 3. The compounds of eo, including rineo, are conjugated like the simple verb, but most of them have it in the perfect rather than ivi. See under con in § 176. Adoc, anteco, theo, pratêros, sibko, and transeo, being used actively, are found in the passive voice. Initure occurs as a future passive of inco. Ambio is regular, like audio, but has either ambidator armbidator or mobile.

Nors. Quee, I c.an, and nequee, I cannot, are conjugated like ee, but they want the imperative mood and the gerund, and their participles rarely occur. They are so netimes found in the passive voice, before an infinitive passive.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 183. (1.) Defective verbs are those which are not used in certain tenses, numbers, or persons.

REMARK. There are many verbs which are not found in all the tenses, numbers, and persons, exhibited in the paradigms. Some, not originally defective, are accounted as, because they do not occur in the classics now extant. Others are in their mature defective. Thus, the first and second persons of the passive voice must be wanting in ms ay recks, from the nature of their signification.

(2.) The following list contains such verbs as are remarkable for wanting many of their parts:-

 Odi, Thate.
 Cœpi, I have begun. 11. Cědo, tell, or give me Fāri, to speak. 7. Quæso, I pray. 8. Ave, \ hail, or 9. Salve, \ farewell. 10. Apage, begone. 12. Confit, it is done.
13. Dēfit, it is wanting.
14. Infit, he begins. 8. Měmini, I remember. 5. Inquam, { I say. 15. Ovat, he rejoices.

 Odi, capi, and memini are used chiefly in the perfect and in the other parts formed from the second root, and are thence called preteritive verbs. Odi has also a deponent form in the perfect: Thus,

IND. perf. o'-di or o'-sus sum; plup. od'-e-ram; fut. perf. od'-e-ro. Subj. perf. od'-e-rim; plup. o-dis'-sem.

Inf. perf. ō-dis'-se; fut. ō-sū'-rum es'-se. Part. fut. ō-sū'-rus; perf. ō'-sus.

NOTE 1. Exosus and perosus, like osus, are used actively. Odivit, for adit, oc curs, M. Anton, in Cic. Phil. 13, 19: and odiendi in Appuleius.

 Ind. perf. cœ'-pi; plup. cœp'-č-ram; fut. perf. cœp'-č-ro. SUBJ. perf. cœp'-c-rim; plup. cœ-pis'-sem. Inf. perf. cœ-pis'-se; fut. cœp-tū'-rum es'-se. PART. fut. cop-tu'-rus; perf. cop'-tus.

Note 2. In Plantus are found a present, capio, present subjunctive, capiam, and infinitive, capere. Before an infinitive passive, captus est, etc., rather than capi, etc., are commonly used.

 Ind. perf. měm'-i-ni; plup. mě-min'-ě-ram; fut. perf. mě-min'-ě-ro. Subj. perf. mě-mĭn'-ē-rim; plup. mčm-ĭ-nis'-sem. Inf. perf. mem-i-nis'-se.

IMPERAT. 2 pers. S. më-men'-to; P. mëm-en-tō'-të.

Note 3. Odi and memini have, in the perfect, the sense of the present, and, in the pluperfect and future perfect, the sense of the imperfect and future, as, fugiet atque oderit. Cic. In this respect, novi, I know, the perfect of nosco, to learn, and consuevi, I am wont, the perfect of consuesco, I accustom myself, agree with odi and memini.

 Ind. pres. ai'-o,* a'-is, a'-it; ---, ---, ai'-unt.*
 imp. ai-ē'-bam, ai-ē'-bās, ai-ē'-bāt; ai-ē-bā'-mūs, ai-ē-bā'-tīs, ai-ē'-bant. Subj. pres. ____, ai'-ās, ai'-āt; ____, ai'-ant. IMPERAT. pres. a'-ī. Part. pres. ai'-ens.

Note 4. Ais with ne is contracted to ain' like viden', abin': for videone, wisne. The comic writers use the imperfect aības, aībat and aībant, which are dissyllabic.

 IND. pres. in'-quam, in'-quis, in'-quit; in'-qui-mus, in'-qui-tis, in'-qui-unt.
 — imp —, —, in-qui-ē'-bāt, and in-qui-bāt; —, —, in-qui-ē'-bant

o. Lnd. pres. ---, ---, fā'-tŭr; fut. fā'-bŏr, ---, fāb'-ĭ-tŭr.

--- perf. fātus est; plup. fātus ĕram. IMPERAT. fā'-rē. Part. pres. fans; perf. fā'-tus; fut. fan'-dus. INFIN. pres. fā'-rī or fā'-rī-er. Gerund. gen. fan'-dī; abl. fan'-dō. SUPINE, fa'-tu.

^{*} Pronounced a'-yo, a'-yunt, etc., wherever the diphthong ai is followed by a vowe Ser 1 9, 1

Interfāri has the forms interfātur, interfāta est, interfāri, interfans, and interfātus.—Effāri has effātor, effatber, effātus est, effāti sunt; imperat effāre; effārt, effātus, effandus, effando; effātu.—Præfāri occurs in the following forms, præfātur, præfāur præfāmatur; præfārer præfarentur; præfāt simus; præfātus fuero; imperat, præfāto, præfāmino; præfatus, præfātus, præfandus; præfando.—Prōfāri has profātur, profāta est, profāta sunt, profātus and profans.

- 7. Ind. pres. quæ'-so, —, quæ'-sit; quæs'-ŭ-mŭs, —, —.
 Inf. pres. quæs'-ĕ-rĕ.
- T. ă'-vē, ă-vē'-të; ă-vē'-to. Inf. ă-vē'-rē. Avēre and salvēre are often used with jūbeo.
- 9 Ind. pres. sal'-ve-o; fut. sal-vē'-bis. Inf. pres. sal-vē'-rē. Imperat. sal'-vē, sal-vē'-tē; sal-vē'-to.
- IMPERAT. ăp'-ă-gë. So ăge with a subject either singular or plural.
- 11. IMPERAT sing. ce'-do; pl. cet'-te for ced'-i-te. Hence cedodum.
- IMPERAT sing. ce'-do; pl. cet'-te for ced'-t-te. Hence cedodulli.
 IND. pres. con'-fit; fut. con-fi'-et.
- Subl. pres. con-fy'-åt; imperf. con-fi'-ë-rët. INF. pres. con-fi'-ë-rī.

 18. IND. pres. dē'-fit; pl. dē-fi'-unt; fut. dē-fi'-ēt. Subl. pres. dē-fi'-āt.
 INF. pres. dē-fi'-ē-rī. So ef-fi'-ē-rī, and in-ter-fi'-ē-rī. Plaut.; and in-ter-fi'-at. Lucr.
- 14. Ind. pres. in'-fit; pl. in-fi'-unt.
- Ind. pres. ŏ'-vāt. Subj. pres. ŏ'-vět; imperf. ŏ-vā'-rět. Part. pres. ŏ'-vans; perf. ō-vā'-tūs; fut. ŏv-ā-tū'-rūs. Gerund, ŏ-van'-dl.

REMARK 1. Among defective verbs are sometimes, also, included the following:—Forem, föres, etc., f-rē, (see § 154, R. 3.) Ausim, auss, ausit, ausim. Faze and fazim, fazīs, fazīt fazīmus, fazītis, fazīmt. Fazem. The form in o is an old future perfect; that in im a perfect, and that in em a pluperfect subjunctive. See § 162, 7, (c.), and 9.

Rem. 2. In the present tense, the first person singular, füro, to be mad, and dor and der, from do, to give, are not used. So in the imperative set, cupe and polle, from scio, cupio, and polle, of on to occur.

REM. 3. A few words, sometimes classed with defectives, are formed by contraction from a verb and the conjunction si; as, sis for si vis, sultis for si vulsi, vides for si oudes (for audies.)

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

- § 184. (a.) Impersonal verbs are those which are used only in the third person singular, and do not admit of a personal subject.
- (b.) The subject of an impersonal verb in the active voice is, for the most part, either an infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause; but in English the neuter pronoun, it, commonly stands before the verb, and represents such clause; as, me delectat scribere, it delights me to write. Sometimes an accusative depending on an impersonal verb takes, in English, the place of a subject; as, me miseret tai, I pity thee.
- Impersonal verbs in the active voice are conjugated in the several conjugations like delectat, it delights; decet, it becomes; contingit, tharpens; this:—

IND. Pres. Imp. Fut. Perf. Plup. Fut. perf.	la Cmj. delectat, delectābat, delectābit, delectāvit, delectavērat, delectavērat.	2d Conj. děcet, decēbat, decēbit, decuit, decui-rat, decu-rat,	3d Conj. contingit, contingebat, continget, contigit, contigerat, contigerat.	4th Conj. Nvěnit, Nveničbat, venict, evenit, eveněrat, eveněrit
Sub. Pres. Imp. Perf. Plup.	delectet, delectāret, delectavěrit, delectavisset.	deceat, decēret, decuĕrit, decuisset.	contingat, contingeret, contigerit, contigisset.	eveniat, evenīrēt, evenērit, evenisset.
INF. Pres. Perf.	delectāre, delectavisse.	decēre, decuisse.	contingere, contigisse.	evenīre, evenisse.

2. (a.) Most neuter and many active verbs may be used imperson. ally in the passive voice, by changing the personal subject of the active voice into an ablative with the preposition a or ab; as,

Illi pugnant; or pugnatur ab illis, they fight. Illi quærunt, or quæritur ab illis, they ask. Cf. § 141, Rem. 2.

(b.) In the passive form, the subject in English is, commonly, either the agent, expressed or understood, or an abstract noun formed from the verb; as,

Pugnātum est, we, they, etc. fought; or, the battle was fought. Concurritur, the people run together; or, there is a concourse.

(c.) Sometimes the English subject in the passive form is, in Latin, an ob lique case dependent on the verb; as, favetur tibi, thou art favored.

The following are the forms of impersonal verbs in the several conjugations of the passive voice:-

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Imp.	ougnātur, ougnabātur, ougnabītur,	favētur, favebātur, favebītur,	curritur, currebātur, currētur,	venītur, veniebātur, veniētur,
Perf.	ougnātum est or	fautum est or	fuit,	fuit,
Plup. I	ougnātum ĕrat or fuĕrat,	fautum ěrat or fuěrat.	cursum ĕrat or fuĕrat,	ventum ĕrat (* fuĕrat,
Fut. p.]	ougnātum ĕrit or fuĕrit.		cursum érit or fuĕrit.	ventum ĕrit or fuĕrit.

		SUBJUNCTIVE	Mood.	
Pres Imp. Perf. Plup.	pugnētur, pugnarētur, pugnātum sit or fuērit, pugnātum esset or fuisset.	faveātur, faverētur, fautum sit or fuērit, fautum esset or fuisset.	currātur, currerētur, cursum sit or fuērit, cursum esset or fuisset.	veniātur, venirētur, ventum sit or fuĕrit, ventum esset or fuisset.

		INFINITIVE I	Mood.	
Pres. Perf	pugnāri pagnatum esse or fuisse, pugnātum īri.	favēri, fautum esse or fuisse, fautum īri.	curri, cursum esse or fuisse, cursum iri.	veniri, ventum esse or fuisse, ventum iri

3. In like manner, in the periphrastic conjugation, the neuter gen der of the participle in dus, both of active and neuter verbs, is used impersonally with est, etc., and the dative of the person; as, milit scribendum fuit, I have been obliged to write; moriendum est omnibus. all must die. See § 162, 15, R. 5.

REMARK 1. Grammarians usually reckon only ten real impersonal verbs, all KEMARK I. Grammarians usually reckno only ten real impersonal verbs, all of which are of the second conjugation, viz. decet, libet, liete, livet, miseret, oportet, piget, penitet, pidet, and tedet. (See § 169.) Four of these, decet, libet, text, and liquet occur also in the third person plural, but without personal subjects. There seems, however, to be no good reason for distinguishing the verbs above enumerated from other impersonal verbs. The following are such other verbs as are most commonly used impersonally:-

(a.) In the first conjugation:—

Constat, it is evident. Juvat, it delights. Præstat, it is better. Restat, it remains. Stat, it is resolved.

Văcat, there is leisure. Certatur, there is a contention. Peccatur, a fault is committed.

Pertinet, it pertains.

there is weeping.

Placet, it pleases.

Pugnātur, a battle is fought. Statur, they stand firm.

(b.) In the second conjugation:—

Apparet, it appears. Attinct, it belongs to. Displicet, it displeases. Dolet, it grieves. Miserētur, it distresses. Pătet, it is plain.

Nocētur, injury is inflicted. (c.) In the third conjugation :-Miserescit, it distresses.

Flētur, we, etc. weep, or,

Pertæsum est, he, they, etc. are disgusted with. Silētur, silence is maintained.

Persuadētur, he, they, etc.

are persuaded.

Accidit, it happens. Conducit, it is useful. Contingit, it happens.
Fallit, or it escapes me;
Fugit me, I do not know.

Sufficit, it suffices. Creditur, it is believed. Curritur, people run.

Desinitur, there is an end. Scribitur, it is written. Vivitur, we, etc. live.

(d.) In the fourth conjugation:

upon; it is fit. Evenit, it happens.

Convenit, it is agreed Expedit, it is expedient. Dormitur, we, they, etc. sleep.

Scitur, it is known. Itur, they, etc. go. Venitur, they, etc. come.

(e.) Among irregular verbs:-

Fit, it happens. Interest, it concerns. Obest, it is hurtful. Prætěrit me, it is unknown to me. Prodest, it avails.

Rēfert, it concerns. Sŭbit, it occurs. Supěrest, it remains.

(f.) To these may be added verbs signifying the state of the weather, or the The subject of these may be Jupiter, deus, or calum, operations of nature. which are sometimes expressed. Of this kind are the following:-

Fulgurat, Fulminat, Gelat, it freezes. Grandinat it hails.

Lapidat, it rains stones. Lucescit, it grows light. Ningit, it snows. Pluit, it rains.

Tonat, it thunders. evening Vesperascit, Advesperascit. Invesperascit, proaches.

Lapi lat, ningit, and pluit are also used impersonally in the passive voice.

REM. 2. Impersonal verbs, not being used in the imperative, take the subjutctive in its stead; as, delectet, let it delight. In the passive voice, their perfect participles are used only in the neuter.

REM. 3. Most of the impersonal verbs want participles, gerunds, and supines; but positive has a present participle, futures in rus and dus, and the gerund. Padet and piget have also the gerund and future passive participle.

REM. 4. Most of the above verbs are also used personally, but frequently in a somewhat different sense; as, ut Tiberis inter cos et pons interesset, so that the Tiber and bridge were between them.

REDUNDANT VERBS.

§ 185. Redundant verbs are those which have different forms to express the same meaning.

Verbs may be redundant in termination; as, fabrico and fabricor, to frame;—in conjugation; as, lävo, -äre, and lävo, -ěre, to wash;—or in certain tenses; as, ödi and ösus sum, I hate.

1. The following deponent verbs, besides their passive form, have an active form in o_i of the same meaning, but which is, in general, rarely used. A few, however, which are marked r., occur more rarely than the corresponding forms in o.

Abominor, to abhor.
Adulor, to flatter.
Altercor, to dispute.
Amplexor, to embrace.
Arpitror, to suppose.
Argutor, to prute.
Assentior, to assent.
Aucipor, to hunt after.
Auguror, to fovetell.
Aurigor, to take the auspices.
Cachinnor, r. to laugh

aloud.
Comitor, to accompany.
Commentor, to deliberate.
Convivor, to feast together.
Cunctor, (cont.), to delay.
Dignor, to deem worthy.
Depascor, to feed upon.
Elucubror, to eluborate.

Fabricor, to frame. Feneror, to lend on interest. Fluctuor, to fluctuate. Frustror, to disappoint. Fruticor, to sprout. Impertior, r. to impart. Jurgor, to quarrel. Lacrimor, r. to weep. Ludificor, to ridicule. Luxurior, r, to be rank. Medicor, to heal. Mereor, to deserve. Metor, to measure. Misĕreor, to commiserate. Moderor, to moderate. Muneror, r. to bestow. Nictor, r. to wink. Nütrior, r. to nourish. Obsonor, to cater. Opinor, to suppose.

Oscitor, to gape.
Pacificor, r. to make a peace.
Palpor, to caress.
Partior, to divide.
Populor, to lay waste.
Punior, to punish.
Ruminor, to ruminate.
Sciscitor, to inquire.
Sortior, to cast lots.
Stabulor, to stable.
Tueor, to defend.
Tumultuor, to be in confusion.

Tūtor, to defend.

Ūtor, to use.
Urinor, to dive.
Velificor, to set sail.
Venĕror, to reverence.
Vociferor, to bawl.

2. The following verbs are redundant in conjugation :-

Boo, -āre, Boo, -ēre, I to roar.
Bool, -āre, Bullio, -āre, Bullio, -āre, Bullio, -āre, I to boil.
Gieo, -ēre, - to excite.
Cio, -īre, - to thicken.
Denseo, -ēre, Fervo, -ēre, Fodio, -ēre, Fodio, -ēre, I to dīg.

Fulgeo, -ēre, r. to shine.
Fulgo, -ēre, r. to wash.
Lāvo, -ēre, to wash.
Lāvo, -ēre, to anoint.
Nicto, -ēre, to wink.
Nicto, -ēre, to wink.
Sālo, -ēre, to salt.
Salto, -ēre, to salt.
Salto, -ēre, to salt.
Salto, -ēre, to abound.

Sōno, -āre, { to sound.
Sōno, -ĕre, } to creak.
Strideo, -ĕre, } to creak.
Tergeo, -ēre, } to wipe.
Tucor, -ēri, } to protect.
Turor, -i, r. }

Those marked r. are rare by usc1.

Mörior, örior, and potior, also, are redundant in conjugation in certain parts See in lists §§ 174 and 177.

§ 186. 1. Some verbs are spelled alike, or nearly alike, but differ in conjugation, quantity, pronunciation, or signification, or in two or more of these respects.

Such are the following:-

Abdico, -āre, to abdicate. Abdico, -ere, to refuse. Accido, -ĕre, to fall upon. Accido, -ere, to cut down. Addo, -ere, to add. Adeo, Tre, to go to. Aggero, -are, to heap up. Aggero, -ere, to heap upon. Allego, -are, to depute. Allego, -ere, to choose. Appello, -are, to call. Appello, -ere, to drive to. Cado, -ere, to fall. Cædo, -ĕre, to cut. Cēdo, -ĕre, to yield. Căleo, -ēre, to be hot. Calleo, -ere, to be hard. Căno, -ere, to sing. Căneo, -ēre, to be gray. Căreo, - re, to want. Cāro, -ĕre, to card wool. Cēlo, -āre, to conceal. Cælo, -are, to carve. Censeo, -ēre, to think. Sentio, ire, to feel. Claudo, -ere, to shut. Claudo, -ere, to be lame. Colligo, -are, to bind together. Colligo, -ere, to collect.

Colligo, -ere, to collect.
Gölo, -äre, to strain.
Cŏlo, -ëre, to cultivate.
Compello, are, to accost.
Compello, -ëre, to force.
Concido, -ëre, to cut to pieces.

Concido, -ĕre, to fall. Conscendo, -ĕre, to embark.

bark.
Conscindo, -ĕre, to tear

to pieces. Consterno, -āre, to terrify. Consterno, -ĕre, to strew

over.
Decido, -čre, to fall down.
Decido, -čre, to cut off.
Decipio, -čre, to deceve.
Despio, -čre, to toe.
Deligo, -čre, to tov.
Deligo, -čre, to love.
Dilgo, -čre, to love.
Dico, -čre, to say.
Droo, -čre, to decide.

Edo, -ĕre, to eat. Edo, -ère, to publish. Educo, -are, to educate. Edūco, -ĕre, to draw out. Eff ero, -are, to make wild. Effèro, -re, to carry out. Excido, -ère, to fall out. Excido, -ere, to cut off. Ferio, -ire, to strike. Fero, -re, to bear. Fērior,-āri, to keep holiday. Frigeo, -ere, to be cold. Frigo, -ere, to fry. Fugo, -are, to put to flight. Fugio,-ere, to fly. Fundo, -are, to found. Fundo, -ere, to pour out. Incido, -ere, to fall into. Incīdo, ere, to cut into. Indico, -āre, to show. Indico, ère, to proclaim. Inficio, -ere, to stain. Infitior, -āri, to deny. Intercido, -ere, to happen. Intercido, -ere, to asunder.

Indico, ère, to proclaim.
Inflicio, ère, to stain.
Inflicio, ère, to stain.
Inflicio, ère, to stain.
Inflicio, ère, to happen.
Intercido, ère, to happen.
Intercido, ère, to cut
asunder.
Jácoo, ère, to lie.
Jácio, ère, to totter.
Lábor, -i, to glide.
Lacto, -āre, to suckle.
Lacto, -āre, to deceive.
Légo, -ère, to be lunful.
Liceo, -ëre, to reud.
Liceo, -ëre, to be lunful.
Liceor, -ëri, to bid for.
Liquo, -āre, to mell.
Liquo, -āre, to mell.
Liquo, -āre, to mell.

Jest.
Jegur, i, to melt.
Māno, -āre, to flow.
Māno, -āre, to fow.
Manodo, -āre, to command
Mando, -āre, to command
Mando, -āre, to exaMēto, -āre, to reap.
Mētor, -āri, to measure.
Mētior, -āri, to measure.
Metioo, -āre, to fear.
Miscro, -āri, to pliy.
Miscreor, -āri, to pliy.
Moror, -āri, to delay.
Moror, -āri, to delay.
Moror, -āre, to gliter.

Nitor, -i, to strive. Obsero, -are, to lock up. Obsěro, -ěre, to sow. Occido, -ere, to fall. Occido, -ere, to kill. Operio, -ire, to cover. Operor, -āri, to work. Opperior, -īri, to wait for Pando, -are, to bend. Pando, -ĕre, to extend. Paro, -are, to prepare. Pāreo, -ēre, to appear. Pario, -ere, to bring forth. Părio, -āre, to balance. Pendeo, -ēre, to hang. Pendo, -ère, to weigh. Percolo, -are, to filter. Percolo, -ere, to adorn. Permaneo, -ere, to remain.

Permano, -are, to flou through. Prædico, -āre, to publish. Prædico, -ère, to foretell. Prodo, -ere, to betray. Prodeo, -ire, to come forth. Recedo, -ere, to retire. Recido, -ere, to fall back Recido, -ere, to cut off. Reddo, -ĕre, to restore. Rědeo, -ire, to return. Refero, -re, to bring back Refério, -ire, to strike back Relego, -are, to remove. Relego, -ere, to read over Sēdo, -āre, to allay. Sědeo, -ere, to sit. Sīdo, -ĕre, to sink. Sēro, -ēre, to sow. Sero, -ere, to entwine. Succido, -ere, to fall un-

der.
Succīdo, -ĕre, to cut down.
Vādo, -ĕre, to go.
Vādor, -āri, to bind over
by bail.
Vēneo -Āre, to he sold.

Vēneo, -īre, to be sold. Vēnio, -īre, to come. Vēnor, -āri, to hunt. Vincio, -īre, to bind. Vinco, -ēre, to conquer. Vōlo, -āre, to fly. Vōlo, velle, to be willing. Different verss have sometimes the same perfect; \$8,

Aceo, acui, to be sour. Acuo, acui, to sharpen. Cresco, crēvi, to grow. Cerno, crēvi, to decres Fulgeo, fulsi, to shing.

Fulcio, fulsi, to prop. Luceo, luxi, to shine. Lügeo, luxi, to mourn. Mulceo, mulsi, to soothe. Mulgeo, mulsi, to milk.

Păveo, pāvi, to fear. Pasco, pāvi, to feed. Pendeo, pependi, tohang Pendo, pependi, to weigh

To these add some of the compounds of sto and sisto.

3. Different verbs have sometimes, also, the same supine or perfect participle; as,

Frico, frictum, to rub. Frigo, frictum, to roast. Maneo, mansum, to re-Mando, mansum, to chew.

Pango, pactum, to drive Paciscor, pactus, to bar-

Pătior, passus, to suffer. Teneo, tentum, to hold. Tendo, tentum, tostretch. Verro, versum, to brush. Pando, passum, to extend. Verto, versum, to turn.

DERIVATION OF VERBS.

§ 187. Verbs are derived either from nouns, from adjectives, or from other verbs.

Verbs derived from nouns or adjectives are called denominatines.

1. (a.) Active denominatives are generally of the first conjugation; those which are neuter, of the second. They are usually formed by adding respectively o and eo to the root; as,

FROM NOUNS.

Actives.

Armo, to arm, (arma.) Fraudo, to defraud, (fraus.) Nomino, to name, (nomen.) Numero, to number, (numerus.) Neuters.

Floreo, to bloom, (flos.) Frondeo, to produce leaves, (frons.) Lūceo, to shine, (lux.) Virco, to flourish, (vis.)

FROM ADJECTIVES.

Albo, to whiten, (albus.) Celebro, to frequent, (celeber.) Libero, to free, (liber.)

Albeo, to be white, (albus.) Calveo, to be bald, (calvus.) Flaveo, to be yellow, (flavus.)

(b.) Sometimes a preposition is prefixed in forming the derivative; as,

Coacervo, to heap together, (acervus.) Exstirpo, to extirpate, (stirps.) Excăvo, te excavate, (căvus.) Illaqueo, to insnare, (laqueus.)

2. Many deponents of the first conjugation, derived from nouns, express the exercise of the character, office, etc., denoted by the primitive; as, architector, to build; comitor, to accompany; furor, to steal; from architectus, comes, and fur.

3. Such as denote resemblance or imitation are called imitatives; as, cornicor, to imitate a crow, from cornix; Gracor, to imitate the Greeks. Some of These end in isso; as, patrisso, to imitate a father.

Verbs derived from other verbs are either frequentatives, in ceptives, desider tives, diminutives, or intensives.

- Frequentatives express a repetition, or an increase of the action expressed by the primitive.
- (a.) They are all of the first conjugation, and are formed by adding
- to the third root; as, domo, (domit-) domito. So adjuto, adjuto, dīco, dicto; gero, gesto. In verbs of the first conjugation, at of the root is often changed into it; as, clamo, to cry, (clamat-) clamito, to cry frequently.
- (b.) A few frequentatives are formed by adding ito to the first root of the primitive; as, ago (ag-) agito. So lateo, latito; nosco, noscito; quæro, quærito.
- (c.) Frequentatives, from primitives of the second, third, and fourth conjugations, sometimes serve again as primitives, from which new frequentatives are formed; as, dico, dicto, dictito; curro, curso, cursito; venio, vento, ventito. Sometimes the second or intermediate form is not in use.
- (d.) Some frequentatives are deponent; as, minitor, from minor (mināt); versor, from verto (vers-). So amplexor, sector, löquitor, from amplector, séquor, and loquor.
- (e.) When verbs of this class express simply an increase of the action denoted by the primitive, they are, by some grammarians, called intensives.
- 2. Inceptives, or inchoatives mark the beginning of the action or state expressed by the primitive.
- (a.) They all end in sco, and are formed by adding that termination to the root of the primitive, with its counecting vowel, which, in the third conjugation, is i; as, căleo, to be hot; călesco, to grow hot.
- So låbo, (åre), låbasco: ingėmo, (ère), ingėmisco; obdormio, (ìre), obdormisco. Bisco is contracted for hisco; from hio, (åre). (b.) Most inceptives are formed from verbs of the second conjugation.
- (c.) Some inceptives are formed from nouns and adjectives by adding asca or esco to the root; as, puerasco, from puer; juvenesco, from juvenis.
 - Note. Inceptives are all neuter, and of the third conjugation. See § 173. Some verbs in sco, which are not inceptives, are active; as, disco, posco.
- 3. Desideratives express a desire of doing the act denoted by the primitive.
- (a.) They are formed from the third root, by adding ŭrio; as, cano, to sup, (canāt,) canāturio, to desire to sup.
 - (b.) Desideratives are all of the fourth conjugation. See § 176, Note.
 - (c.) Verbs in ūrio, having u long, are not desideratives; as, prūrio, ligūrio.
- 4. Diminutives denote a feeble or trifling action. They are formed by adding illo to the root of the primitive; as, conscribillo, to scribble. from conscribo.

They are few in number, and are all of the first conjugation.

5. Intensives denote eager action. They are usually formed by adding so, esso, or isso to the root of the primitive; as, facesso, 'so act earnestly-from făcio.

So căpesso, incesso, from căpio and incedo. Concăpisco, to desire greatly, though in form an inceptive, is, in its signification, an intensive.

Note. Verus of all 'hese classes have sometimes simply the meaning of their primitives.

COMPOSITION OF VERBS.

§ 188. Verbs are compounded variously:—

Of a noun and a verb; as, ælifico, belligero, lucrifácio. See § 103, R. 1.

2. Of an adjective and a verb; as, amplifico, multiplico. Of two verbs; as, caléfacio, madéfacio, patéfacio.

REM. In verbs of this class, the first part, which is a verb of the second conn gation, loses its final o; the second part is always the verb facio. Of an adverb and a verb; as, bēnēf ācio, mālēdīco, sātāgo, nōlo, neglīgo.

Of a preposition and a verb; as, adduco, excelo, prodo, subrepo, discerno,

6. Of a preposition and a noun, as, pernocto, irrētio.

§ 189. In composition with particles, the vowels a and e and the diphthong a in the radical syllable of the simple verb are often changed in the compound.

1. The following simple verbs in composition change a into e:-

		Pro . or at				
Arceo, Candeo, Capto,	Carpo, Damno, Fallo,	Farcio, Fătiscor, Grădior,	Jacto, Lacto, Mando,	Părio, Partio, Pătior,	Patro, Sacro, Scando,	Spargo, Tracto.

Exc. A is retained in amando, pramando, desacro, and retracto; pradamno, and pertracto sometimes also occur. A is also changed into e in occento from canto, and anhēlo from hālo; comperco also is found.

 The following, in the first root, change ă and ĕ into ĭ; viz. ăgo, cădo, egeo, emo, frango, pango, premo, rego, sedeo, specio, tango.

3. These change a and e, in the first and second roots, into i; viz. sălio, to leap, săpio, táceo, and těneo.

 These change ă into ĭ, and æ into ī, in all the roots; viz. hăbeo, lăcio, lăteo, plăceo, stătuo; cædo, lædo, and quæro.

 The following change ă, in the first root, into ĭ, and in the third root into e; viz.

căno, căpio, făteor, jăcio, răpio, and ăpiscor.

Exc. (a.) A is retained in circumágo, perágo, satágo; antéhabeo, posthabeo, dēpango, répango, compláceo, and perpláceo. Occano and récano also sometimes occur. E is retained in coeno, circumsédeo, and supersédeo. Antécapio and an-

 ticipo are both used; so also are săperjacio and săperjicio.
 (b.) Cogo and dego are formed, by contraction, from con, de, and ago; demo, promo and samo, from de, pro, sub, and emo; præbeo, and perhaps debeo, from præ, de, and habeo; pergo and surgo, from per, sub, and rego.

Note 1. Fácio, compounded with a preposition, changes ă into i in the first root, and into e in the third; as, afficio, afficio, afficio, afficio with nouns and adjectives, change a into i, and also drop i before o, and are of the first conjugation; as, significo, latifico, magnifico. Spécio forms

some compounds in the same manner; as, conspicor and surptor.

Note 2. Légo, compounded with con, de, di, e, inter, nee, and se, changes é not i, in the first rot; as, colligo, negligo, etc.; but with ad, pra, per, re, sub,

and trans, it retains e; as, allego.

Note 3. Calco and salto, in composition, change a into u; as, inculco, insulto. Plaudo changes au into o; as, explodo; except applaudo. Audio changes au mto e in obedio. Causo, claudo, and quatio, drop a : as, accuso, recludo, percutio Faro changes a into è in dejà o and pejèro, but dejaro, also, is in use.

Note 4. In the compounds of careo, maneo, and trake a remains unchanged, and so also does a in the compounds of hareo.

NOTE 5. The simple verbs with which the following are compounded are not used:—

Dēfendo,	Impědio,	Confuto,	Instigo,	Conniveo,	
Offendo,	Imbuo,	Rěfuto,	Impleo,	Percello,	
Expěrior,	Compello, (-āre,)	Ingruo,	Compleo,	Induo,	and some
Expědio,	Appello, (-āre,)	Congruo,	Rěnideo,	Exuo,	others.

For the changes produced in prepositions by composition with verbs see § 196.

PARTICLES.

§ 190. 1. Particles are those parts of speech which are neither declined nor conjugated. They are divided into four classes—adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Note. A word may sometimes belong to two or more of these classes, according to its connection.

ADVERBS.

An adverb is a particle used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,

Běne et supienter dizit, he spoke well and wisely; Cănis ēgrēgie fidēlis, a remarkably faithful dog; Nimis valde laudāre, to praise too much. Compare \$277, K. 1.

Adverbs, in regard to their signification, are divided into various classes; as, adverbs of place, time, manner, etc., and some belong to either class according to their connection.

4. In regard to their etymology, adverbs are either primitive or derivative.

REMARK. Among primitive adverbs are here classed not only such as cannot be traced to any more remote root, but also all which are not included in the regular classes of derivative adverbs hereafter mentioned.

PRIMITIVE ADVERBS.

§ 191. The primitive adverbs are few in number, when compared with the derivatives, and most of them are contained in the following lists marked I, II, and III.

I. Adverbs of Place and Order.

ideo, so far, as far. ălicăbi, somewhere. . ăliquoversum, toward adhuc, to this place. aliounde, from some some place. opposite, adversus, ăliundě, from another place. over against, ălio, to another place. adversum, place. exadversus,-um,) toward. ăliquă, in some way. circā. eircum, around. ălia, by another way. aliorsum, toward anothălias. in another place. er place. circiter, on every side. álibi, elsewhere. ăliquo, to some place. circumcirca allaround. citra, on this side. citro, hither. contră, over against. coram, before. dehine, henceforth. deinceps, successively. deinde, after that. dēniquē, finally. dēnuo, again. deorsum, downward. dextrorsum, toward the right.

eadem, the same way.

ea, that way.

place.

eō, to that place, thither. eodem, to the same place. exinde, after that. extra, without. extrinsecus, from without. f ŏrās, out of doors. f oris, without. hāc, this way. hactenus, thus far. hīc, here. hinc, hence. huc, hither. hūcusquě, thus far. horsum, hitherward. Ibi, there. ibidem, in the same place. illac, that way. illic, there. illinc, thence. illö, thither. illorsum, thitherward. illuc, thither. inde. thence. indidem, from the same

lnfra, below, beneath. Inibi, in that place. intrinsecus, from within intrā, intro, within. introrsum, intŭs, istāc, that way. istic, there. istinc, thence. isto, istuc, thither. juxtā, near, alike. nēcubi, lest any where. neutro, to neither side. neutrubi, to neither place. to neither side. nusquam, } no where. pěnitus, within. poně, post, behind, back. porro, onward. procul, far. prope, propter, near. prorsum, forward. protinus, onward. qua? in which way? quāquā, | what way quācumque, | soever. quaque, wheresoever. quālībēt, } in every way. quāvis,

quo? whither? quoad, quousque, \ how far. quopiam, quōpiam, { quōquam, } to some place. whitherquoquo, quōcumquĕ, soever. quoquoversus, toward every side.

quorsum? whitherward? quolibet, to every place. retro, backward. retrorsum, back. rursum, sīcūbi, if any where. sicunde, if from any place. sinistrorsum, toward the

subter, beneath. săper, supră, above, on top. sursum, upward. tum, then, in the next place. noi? where? ŭbicumque, wherever, ŭbiŭbi. wheresoever. nbilibet, any where, ŭbiquĕ, every where.

ŭbĭvīs. ultra, ultro, beyond. unde? whence? undelibet, from every unděvīs. where. undiquĕ, undeundě. whenceunděcumquě, soever. uspiam, somewhere, usquam, any where. usque, all the way. usquequaque, in all ways. utrimque, on both sides. utro? which way? utrobī? in which place? utrobique, in both places. utroque, to both sides.

utroqueversum, toward both sides. REMARK 1. (a.) The interrogative adverbs of place, ubi? where? unde? whence? quo? whither? and qua? in what way? have relation to other ad-

verbs formed in a similar manner, thus constituting a system of adverbial correlatives similar to that of the pronominal adjectives. See § 139, 5, (3.) (b.) As in the case of the pronominal correlatives, the interrogative and relative forms are alike, beginning with u or qu. The demonstratives are formed from is, which is strengthened by dem, and the indefinite from aliquis. general relatives and the general indefinites or universals, like those of the pronominal adjectives, are made, the former by doubling the simple relatives or by appending to them the termination cumque, 'soever,' and the latter by ad-

ding que, vi	s, or libět. Th	us:			
Interrog.	Demonstr.	Relat.	Gen. Relat.	Indefin.	Gen. Indefin
ŭbi?	ibi, ibidem,	ŭbi,	ŭbiŭbi, ŭbicumquĕ,	ălicăbi,	ŭbīquě, ŭbĭvīs, ŭbĭlĭbět.
undě?	indě, indĭdem,	undě,	undeundě, unděcumquě,	ălicundě,	undīq uĕ, undĕvīs, undĕlĭbĕt,
quō?	eō, eōdem,	quō,	quõquõ, quõcumquĕ,	ăliquő,	quōvīs, quōlibě t ,
qua?	eā, eādem.	quā.	quāquā, quācumque.	ăliquā.	quāvīs. quālībēt.

(c.) To those answering to ubi? may be added alibi, nullibi, and inibi, the latter being a strengthened form of ibi. In like manner aliunde, utrimque, intrinsecus, and extrinsecus may be added to those answering to under and alio to those answering to quo? So also to utro? answer utroque and neutro.

(d.) The demonstratives ibi, indé, and eo are used only in reference to relative sentences which precede; but more definite demonstratives are formed from the pronouns hic, iste, and ille, answering in like manner to ubi? unde? and quo? These together with the preceding correlatives are, in the following table, arranged respectively under their several interrogatives ubi? under quo?

ua? and quorsum?-Thus:

nbi? hīc, istīc, illīc, jbi, ibīdem, alībi, alīcubi.	unde? hinc, istinc, illinc, inde, indidem, äliunde, älfcunde.	quō? hūc, istūc, illūc, eō, eōdem, äliō, äliquō.	quā? hāc, istāc, illāc, eā, eādem, āliā, ălīquā.	quorsum? horsum, istorsum, illorsum,, ăliorsum, äliquōversum
ancaoi.	tarre carrier or		1	

(e.) Hic, hinc, huc, refer to the place of the speaker; istic, istinc, istuc, to the place of the second person or person addressed; and illic, illine, illuc, to that of the third person or the person or thing spoken of. Cf. § 207, R. 23, (a.) and (d.)

(f.) The interrogative adverbs ubi, unde, quo, quo, etc. are often used without a question, simply as adverbs of place; as, in eam partem ituros, atque ibi

futuros Helvetios, ubi eos Cæsar constituisset.

(g.) In consequence of a transfer of their meaning, some of the adverbs of place, as, hic, ibi, ibi, hinc, inde, hacteris, etc., become also adverbs of time, and some of them are used also as conjunctions.

Adverbs of Time. П.

actūtum, immediately. abhine, from this time. adeo, so long (as). adhūc, until now, still. ăliās, at another time ălĭquamdi**ũ**, for awhile. aliquando, at some time. aliquoties, several times. ante, 1 before, anteā, | previously. antehac, formerly. bis, twice. (see § 119). circiter, about, near. crās, tomorrow. cum or quum, when. deinceps, in succession. deinde or dein, thereupon, exinde or exin, afterward. dehine, from this time. lēmum, at length. denique, lustly. diū, long. dudum, previously. eousque, so long. hērē or hērī, yesterday. hic, here, hereupon. hine, from this time, since. hodie, to-day. ibi, then, thereupon. dentidem, now and then, repeatedly.

illīcō, immediately. inde, after that, then. interdum, sometimes. intérim, meanwhile. itérum, again. jam, now, already. jamdūdum, { long ago. jamjam, presently. jampridem, long since. modo, just now. mox, soon after. nondum, not yet. nonnumquam, sometimes. sæpě, often. nūdins tertius, three days ago. nunc, now. numquam, never. nūper, lately.

ölim, formerly. părumper, for a short paulisper, \ time. perendie, two days hence. porro, hereafter, in future.

post, postcā, afterwards. posthāc, hereafter. postridie, the day after. pridem, long since. pridie, the day before. protinus, instantly.

quamdiū? how long? quando? when? quandocumque, whenquandoque, at some time. quater, four times. quousque? \ how long quondam, formerly. quotidie, daily. quoties? how often? quum or cum, when. rursus, again. sěměl, once.

semper, always. statim, immediately. subinde, immediately, now and then. tamdiū, so long.

tandem, at length. tantisper, for so long. ter, thrice. tūtiēs, so often. tum, tunc, then.

übi, when, as soon as. umquam, ever. usque, until, erer. nt or nti. us, as soon as when.

III Adverbs of Manner, Quality, Degr e, etc,

ădeo, so, to that degree. admödum, very much. aliter, otherwise. ceu, as, like as. cur? why? duntaxăt, only, at least. ětiam, also, tru y, yes. ětiamnunc, } also, besides. ětiamtum, ferme, almost, nearly. fortassě, perhaps. frustrā, in vain. grātīs, freely. haud, not. haudquaquam, by no means. hūcusquě, so far. identidem, constantly. immo, nay, on the contrary. Ita, so. item, just so, also. Itidem, in like manner. juxtā, equally, alike. măgis, more. modo, only. næ or nē, truly, verily. nē, not. nēdum, much less. nempě, truly, forsooth. nēquāquam, (by no neutiquam, | means. nimirum, certainly, to be

nimis, nimis, nimium, too much. non, not. omnino, altogether, only. pæně, almost. pălam, openly. păriter, equally. părum, too little. paulātim, by degrees. pėnitus, wholly. pěrindě, i just as, proindě, sa though. perquam, very much. plerumque, for the most part, commonly. pŏtiŭs, rather. porro, moreover, then. præter, beyond, except. præsertim, particularly. profecto, truly. prope, almost, near. propemodum, almost. prorsŭs, wholly. quam, how much, as. quamobrem, wherefore. quare? why? wherefore? quasi, as if, as it were. quemadmodum, as. quidem, indeed. quomodo? how? in what manner? quoque, also. rité, duly. saltem, at least.

sānē, truly. satis, senough. sătius, rather. scilicet, truly, to wit. seens otherwise. seorsum, separately. Sic. 80. sīcŭt, } so as, as. sīcŭtī, } so as, as. sīmŭl, together. singillatim, one by one. solum, only, alone. tam, so, so much. tamquam, like, as if. tantopère, so greatly. tantum, so much, only. tantummŏdŏ, only. těměrě, at random. ūnā, together. usquequaque, in all points. in all ways. ŭt, ŭtī. utique, at any rate, certainly. utpětě, as, masmuch as. valdē, very much. věl, even. vělůt, as, like as, for vělůtí, example. vicissim, in turn, again. vidělicět, clearly, to wit. vix, scarcely.

REM. 2. Ačverbs denoting quality, manner, etc., are sometimes divided into chotose of, 1. Quality; as, benë, mdlē. 2. Certainty; as, certē, plānē. 3. Contingence; as, fortē. 4. Negation; as, hand, nön, nē, immō. 5. Afitrmation; as, ne, quidem, ditquē, nenpē. 6. Swearing; as, kerclē. 7. Explaining; as, videlē, tupietē. 8. Separation: as, scorsum. 9. Joining together; as, simd, dinā. 10. Interrogation; as, car? quārē? 11. Quantity or degree; as, satis, ādec. 12. Excess, as, perquan, nuacinē. 13. Defect; as, pārum, penē. 14. Preference; as, pōtius, sātis. 15. Likeness; as, tūt, sāc. 16. Unlikeness; as, ditēr. 17. Exclusion; as, tutam, sōlum.

REM. 3. No n is the ordinary Latin negation. Hand signifies either 'not at all', or 'not exactly.' It is used by the comic and later writers in all combinations, but in the authors of the best age its use is more especially limited to its connection with adjectives and adverbs denoting a measure; as, hand multum, hand paruse, hand mediceris, hand paulo, hand pricul, hand long see especially hand some difficility, and some intelling: a londer words; as, hand some difficility, hand some intelling: a londer words; as, hand some difficility, hand some intelling: a londer words, hand amaguna. With verbs hand is scarcely used until Livy and Tacitus, except in the common phrase hand so on, which is equivalent to nested on—Ne?, (or ni) is the primitive Latin negative particle, signifying no or not. It is used in this sense and as an adverb, (a) with quidem to make an emphatic negation of the word standing between them: as, në in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns; (b) in composition as in ne vio, nëfos, neuter etc. (e) with imperatives and

subjunctives used as imperatives; as, Ne pueri, ne lanta animic assuescle bella. V rg. So, also, in wishes and asseverations; as, Ne id Jupiter subject, may Jupiter forbid it. Liv. Ne-riam, s sice, may I die, if I know. Cic; and in concessive and restrictive clauses; as, Ne-puerid, suppose there was not. Cic. Sim misericurds in furthus avarai, ne illis sanguinen nostrant largiantur, only let them not, etc. Cic. So dum ne, dummoido ne, mêdo ne, dum quidem ne; and in intentional clauses with ut.-Im mo, as a negative, substitutes something stronger in the place of the preceding statement, which is denied; as, Cursa infar nom bone est I inmo optima, sed, etc. Cic. It may often be translated by 'nay,' or 'nay even.'

- REM. 4. Quidem gives particular emphasis to a word or an idea, and then answers to our 'certainly' or 'indeed,' but frequently, especially with a pronoun, it merely adds emphasis. Equidem, which is considered as a compound of ego and quidem, is used exclusively in this sense by Cicero, Virgil, and Horace, but by other and particularly by later writers it is used like quidem.—Nempe, 'surely,' is cften used ironically, when we refute a person by concessions which he is obliged to make, or by deductions. In other connections it may be translated 'namely.'
- REM. 5. Sic, it d_a , t am., as also t an t d p e r e, and e e d e d e d e d e e d
- Rem. 6. Umquam, 'ever,' and 'usquam, 'somewhere,' like quisquam, require a negation in the sentence, and thus become equivalent to uumquam and nusquam. A negative question, however, may supply the place of a negative proposition; as, num tu eum umquam vivisit?—Uspiam, like quisquam, is not negative, but is the same as āltquis. So, also, quōpiam is used affirmatively, and quōquam negatively.—Jam, with a negative, answers to our 'longer'; as, Nihū jam spēro, I no longer hope for amy thing. When used to connect sentences it signifies 'further,' or 'now.—Usque is commonly accompanied by the prepositions add, in, ab, or ex. It rarely signifies 'ever and anon'; as, Natūram expellus furcā, lūmen usque recurret. Hor.—Nuper, modo, and mox are relative and indefinite.—Dudum, 'previously,' or 'bofore,' in relation to a time which has just passed away, may often be translated 'just before.—Jamdādum contains the idea of impatience, and signifies 'without delay,' 'forthwith'; as, Jamdūdum sumite panas. Virg.—Tandem, 'at length,' also expresses the impatience with which a question is put.
- REM. 7. Tunc is 'then,' 'at that time,' in opposition to nunc, 'now':
 Tum is 'then,' as the correlative of quum,' when;' as, quum omnes adessent,
 tum ille exorsus est dicère, when all were present, then he began to speak.
 Withcut a relative sentence tum signifies 'hereupon,' or 'thereupon'; but a
 relative sentence may always be supplied. The same difference exists between
 etiam nunc and etiam tum, 'still,' or 'yet'; and between nunc ipsum and um ipsum; quummaxime and tummaxime, 'just,' or 'even then'; for etiam nunc, nune
 ipsum and quum maxime refer to the present; but etiamtum, tum ipsum, and
 tummaxime, to the past.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

- § 192. Adverbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, pro nouns, and participles.
 - I. From Nouns.
- 1. Of these a few end in im (generally ātim), and denote manner; as,
- grēgātim, in herds; membrātim, limb by limb; vīcissātim, or more frequently, vīcissim, by turns; from grex, membrum, and vīcis.
 - Some end in itus, and denote origin or manner; as,
- colum, from heaven; funditus, from the bottom; rādīcītus, by the roots; from colum, fundus, and rādix.
- Some are merely the different cases of nouns used adverbially;
- (a) Some adverbs of time; as, mānē, noctā, dū, tempörē or tempörī, initiō, principiō, mödo.—(b.) Adverbs of place; as, förās, förās.—(c.) Adverbs of manner; as, spontē, forēē, grātis or grātis, ingrātis, vulgō, paritim.
 - II. From Adjectives and Participles.

By far the greater number of derivative adverbs come from adjectives and participles (present and perfect), and end in \tilde{e} and $t\tilde{e}r$.

1. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, are formed by adding \bar{e} to the root; as,

agrė, scarcely; altė, high; libėrė, freely; longė, fur; misėrė, miserably; plėnė, fully; doctė, learnedly; ornātė, elegantly; from agėr, altus, libėr, longūa, misėr, plėnūs, doctūs, and ornatūs. Bėnė, well, is from bonūs, or an older form bėnūs.

REMARK. A few adverbs in e differ in meaning from their adjectives; as, sānē, certainly; valdē, very; from sānūs, sound, well; and vālidūs, strong.

Exc. 1. A few adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, add *uĕr*, *uŭs*, *im*, or *ūtim* to the root; as,

nāvilēr, actively; antiquitūs, anciently; divintūs, divinely; privatim, privately; tuātim, after vour manner; singulātim, singulātim, sigūllātim, or singultim, severally; casim, carptim, sensim, statim, etc. from nāvūs, antiquūs, divinūs, privātūs, tuūs, singūli. casūs, carptūs, etc.

Exc. 2. Some adverbs are formed with two or more of the above terminations with the same meaning; as, dūvē, dūritēr; firmē, firmtier; nāvē, nāviēr; largē, largitēr; lūcūlentē, lūcūlentēr; turbūlentē, turbūlentēr: so cautē and cautim; kāmānē, hāmanītēr, and hāmānītās; pūblicē and pūblicitās.

 Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the third declension, are formed by adding \(\tilde{u}\tilde{\epsilon}\) to the root, except when it ends in \(\tilde{\epsilon}\) in which case \(\tilde{\epsilon}\) only is added; as,

ācritēr, sharply; fēlicitēr, happily; turpītēr, basely;—ēlēgantēr, elegantly, prūdentēr, prudently; āmantēr, lovingiv; propērantēr, hastily; from ācēr, fēliz, turpīs, ēlēgans, prūdens, āmans, and propērans. So also from the obsolete ālu for ālūs, and propis (neuter propē), come āltēr and proptēr for propitēr.

Exc. From audax comes by syncope audacter; from fortis comes fortiter from omnis, omnino; from über, übertim; and from nequam, nequiter.

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3. From the cardinal numerals are formed numeral adverbs in $t\bar{e}s$; as,

quinquiës, déciës, from quinque and dècem. So tôties and quôties, from tôt and quôt. See § 119.

Some adverbs are merely certain cases of adjectives. Such are,

(a.) Ablatives in 6, from adjectives and participles of the second declension as, citô, quickly; continuâ, immediately; falsō, falsely; crēbrō, frequently; mēritô, deservedly; nēcopinato, unexpectedly; fortulô, by chance; auspicato, auspiciously; consultô, designedly; and a few in ā from adjectives of the first declension; as, rectā, straight on; ānā, together. In like manner, rēpēntē, suddenly, from rēpens; and pēregre or pēregri, from pērēger.

(b.) Nominatives or accusatives of the third declension in the neuter singular; as, fâcilê, difficilê, rêcens, sublimê, and impûnê; and some also of the second declension; as, cêtêrum, plêrumquê, multum, plârimum, polissimum, pantum, nimium, pârum, and the numeral adverts, primum, têrum, tertum, quertum, etc. which have also the termination in ô, and so also postrémum (ô), and ultinum (ô). The neuter plural sometimes occurs also, especially in poetry; as, multâ gemêre; tristât uldare: crêbrâ eferire.

(c.) Accusatives of the first declension; as, bifariam, trifariam, multifariam, omnifariam, etc. scil. partem.

Nore 2. Some adjectives, from the nature of their signification, have no corresponding adverbs. Of some others, also, none occur in the classics. Such are amens, dirás, discors, gnárás, rialis, trux, imbellis, immbolis, and similar compounds. In place of the adverbs formed from vétás and fidás, vétusté and antiqué are used for the former, and fidélitér for the latter, from vétastás, antiquás, and fidélis.

III. From the adjective pronouns are derived adverbs of place, etc. (See § 191, Rem. 1.)

REMARK. The terminations δ and δ denote the place whither, instead of the accusative of the pronoun with a preposition; as, $\epsilon\delta$ for ad eum locum; his for ad hune between; the terminations $\delta\delta$ and inc denote the place from which; i and ic; the place in which; and δ and δ , the place by or through which; as, $\delta\delta$; vid or parte being understood.

IV. (a.) A few adverbs are derived from prepositions; as, subtūs, beneath; from sub; proptēr, near; from propē. (b.) Mordicus and versus are derived from the verbs mordeo and verto.

REMARK. Diminatives are formed from a few adverbs; as, clam, clam; dum; primum, primulum; celérius, celériuscule; septus, septuscule; bênê, bellê, bellissimê,

COMPOSITION OF ADVERBS.

§ 193. Adverbs are compounded variously:—

- Of an adjective and a noun; as, postridie, qubitidie, magnopèré, maximòpèré, summòpèré, quantòpèré, tantopèré, tantummòdo, solummòdo, multimòdis, quòtannisof postèrò die, magnò òperé, etc.
 - 2. Of a pronoun and a noun; as, hodie, quare, quomodo-of hoc die, qua re, etc.
 - Of an adverb and a noun; as, nūdius, sapēnumērō—of nunc dies, etc.
- Of a preposition and a nonn; as, comminus, eminus, illico, obiter, extemplo, ebciam, postmodo, admodum, propediem—of con, e, and manus; in and locus; etc.
- Of an adjective and a pronoun; as, āliōqui or ăliōquin, cētērōqui or cētērōquin—of ăliūs and quī, i. e. aliō quō (mōdo), etc.
- Of a pronoun and an adverb; as, ăliquamdiū, ălicūbi—of ăliquis, diū, and ŭbi; nēquāquam and nēquicquam—of nē and quisquam.
 - 7. Of two verbs; as, ilicet, scilicet videlicet of īre, scire, videre, and licet.
- Of an adverb and a verb; as, quölibět, übivis, undělibět. So deinceps—from dein and căpio; duntaxat—from dum and taxo.
- Of a participle with various parts of speech; as, deorsum, dextrorsum, horsum, retrorsum, sursum—of de, dexter, hic, retro, super, and vorsus or versus.
- 10. Of two adverbs; as, jamdūdum, quamdiū, tamdiū, cummaximē, tummaximē quousquē, sīcāt.
- 11. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, dēnuo, imprimīs, cumprimīs, apprimē, incussum—of dē novo, in primis, etc.
- 12. Of a preposition and a pronoun; as, quapropter, posteā, interea, prætereā, hacterius, quatenius, dilquaterius, eatenius—of propter que, post ca or cam, etc.
- 13. Of a preposition and an adverb; as, abhinc, adhac, derepente, interibi, in-
- terdiu, interdum, persapē.

 14. Of two or three prepositions; as, insupēr, protinus, indē, dein, deindē,
- pērindē.
 15. Of a conjunction and an adverb; as, nēcūbi, sīcūbi—of nē, sī, and ălicūbi.
- Of an adverb and a termination scarcely used except in composition;
 ibidem, părumpër, quandocumque, ŭbique, utcumque.
- 17. Of three different parts of speech; as, forsităn—of fors, sit, an, quemad-modum, quamobrem, etc.
 - Of an adverb and an adjective; as, nīmīrum, utpötē.
 - 19. Of an adjective and a verb; as, quantumvīs, quantumlibět.

Signification of certain Compound and Derivative Adverbs.

- 1. The adverbs continuo, prôtinus, státim, confestim, súbito, rèpente and dèrepente, actitum, illico, ilicet, extemplo, signify in general 'directly' or 'immediately'; lut, strictly, continuo means, 'immediately after'; sátim, 'without delay'; confestim, 'directly'; sibito, 'suddenly, unexpectedly'; prôtinus, 'farter,' viz. in the same direction, and hence, 'without interruption'; rèpente and dérèpente, 'at once,' opposed to sensim, 'gradually,' (see Cic. Off. 1, 32); actitum, 'instantaneously,' i. q. eòdem actis illico, and more rarely ilicet, 'forthwith, the instant,' (Virg. Æn. 2, 424, Cic. Mur. 10); so also extemplo, (Liv. 41, 1).
- 2. Presertim, practipue, imprimis, cumprimis, apprime, are generally translated 'principally,' but, properly, presertim is 'particularly,' and sets forth a particular circumstance with emphasis; practipue, from praccipio, has reference to privilege, and signifies 'especially'; imprimis and comprimis, signify 'principally,' or 'in preference to others'; and apprime, 'before all,' 'very,' is used

In pure Latin to qualify and strengthen only adjectives. Admodum properly eignifies 'according to measure,' that is, 'in as great a measure as can be,' very, exceedingly.' With numerals it denotes approximation, 'about.' Admodum milit and admodum pullus signify 'nothing at all' and 'no one at all.'

3. Modo is the usual equivalent for 'only.' Sölum, 'alone,' 'merely,' points to something higher or greater. Tantam, 'only,' 'merely,' intimates that something else was expected. The significations of sölum and tantum are strengthened by modo, forming sölummodo and tantummodo. Duntaxat, 'only, solely,' is not joined with verbs. It also signifies 'at least,' denoting a limitation to a particular point. Saltem also signifies 'at least,' but denotes the reduction of a demand to a minimum; as, Eripe mini hume dolorem, aut minue saltem.

4. Frustrā implies a disappointed expectation; as in frustra suscipère labbres. Nequicoquam denotes the absence of success, as in Hor. Carm. 1, 3, 21. Incosum, composed of in and cassum, 'hollow' or 'empty,' signifies 'to no purpose';

as, tela incassum jacere.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

§ 194. 1. Adverbs derived from adjectives with the terminations \bar{e} and $t\bar{e}r$, and most of those in o, are compared like their primitives.

2. The comparative, like the neuter comparative of the adjective, ends in iùs; the superlative is formed from the superlative of the ad-

jective by changing us into e; as,

dūrē, dūriūs, dārissimē; fācilē, fāciliūs, fācillimē; ācritēr, ācrūs, ācerrīmē; rārō, rāriūs, rārissime; mātūrē, mātūriūs, mātūrissime or māturrīme.

 Some adverbs have superlatives in ō or um; as, mērttissīmō, plūrīmum, prīmō or prīmum, pōtissīmum.

4. If the comparison of the adjective is irregular or defective, (see §§ 125, 126), that of the adverb is so likewise; as,

bēnē, meliūs, optīmē; mālē, pējūs, pessimē; pārum, minūs, minīme; mutum, plūs, plūrimum; —, priūs, primō or prīmum; —, ōcūs, ōcissīme; —, dētēriūs, dēterrime; —, ptūtis, potissīme or pōtissīmum; meritō, —, mērītissīmo; sātīts, sātītās, — Māgūs, mazimē, (from magnās,) has no positīve; nāpēr, nāperrime, has no comparatīve. Prūpē, prōpiās, prozime: the adjectīve propiōr has no positive in use. The regular adverb in the positīve degree from ūbēr is wanting, its place being supplied by ūbertim, but ūbēriūs and ūberrimē are used. So instead of tristitēr, tristē, the neuter of tristis, is used, but the comparatīve tristūs is regular; and from sōcors only sōcordūis, the comparatīve, is in use.

 Diū and sæpē, though not derived from adjectives, are yet compared; diū, diūtiūs, diūtissīme; sæpē, sæpūs, sæpissime. A comparative tempēriūs, from

tempērī or temporī, also sometimes occurs. So sēcus, sēcius.

 Adverbs, like adjectives, are sometimes compared by prefixing magis and maximē; as, magis apertē, maximē accommodātē.

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 195. 1. A preposition is a particle which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.

 Prepositions express the relations of persons or things, either to one another, or to actions and conditions; as, amor meus erea te, my love toward thee; to adte, I go to thee.

- 3. Some prepositions have the noun or pronoun which follows them in the accusative, some, in the ablative, and some, in either the accusative or the ablative.
 - 4. Twenty-six prepositions have an accusative after them :-

id, to, towards, at, for.
adversins, against,
adversims, towards.
ante, before.
intid, at, with, near, before, in presence ofcircin, circum,
around, about.
circiter; about, near.
cirs,
circ,
on this side, within.
contrib, against, opposite.

extrā, without, beyond.
infrā, under, beneath.
inter, between, among,
during.
intrā, within.
juxtā, near to, next to.
öb, for, on account of,

intrā, within.
juxtā, near to, next to.
öb, for, on account of,
before.
pines, in the power of,
with.
pet, through, throughout,
by, during.

post, after, since, behind. præter, past, before, , against, beyond, besides. prope, near by, nigh. propter, near, on account

secundum, after, behind, along, next to, according to. suprā, above, overtrans, over, beyond. ultrā, beyond.

5. Eleven prepositions have after them an ablative:-

poné, behind.

ā, āb, abs, absquē, without, but forcēram, before, in presence of: cnm, with.

ergā, towards, opposite.

dē, from, down from, after, of, concerning. ē, lout of, from, of, by, ex, after. palam, before, in presence of.

præ, before, for, on account of, in comparison with. prō, before, for, instead of, according to.

sině, without. těnůs, as far as, up to.

6. Five prepositions take after them sometimes an accusative, and sometimes an ablative:—

clam, without the knowl- sub, under, about, near. super, above, over; upon subter, under, beneath. In, in, on; to, into, against.

REMARK I. Prepositions are so called, because they are generally placed before the noun or pronoun whose relation they express. They sometimes, however, stand after it. Cf. & 279, 10.

REM. 2. A is used only before consonants; \$\display\$ before vowels, and frequently before consonants; though rarely before labials: \$\display\$ is obsolete, except in the phrase \$\display\$ is.

E is used only before consonants, ex before both vowels and consonants.

REM. 3. Versüs, which follows its noun, (cf. § 235, R. 3), usque, and exactersus (um), sometimes take an accusative, simil and procal, an ablative, and are then by some called prepositions. Secus, with an accusative, occurs in Pliny and Cato.

REM. 4. Many of the prepositions, especially those which den. to place, are also used as adverbs. Cf. § 191.

Signification and Use of certain Prepositions.

REM. 5. (a.) Ad denotes direction, and answers to the questions Whither? and Till when? as, Venio ād te. Sophocles ad summan senection tragodius freit. Cic. It also denotes a fixed time; as, ād hāram, at the hour; ād tempus aldquid facēre,—at the right time. But sometimes ād tempus denotes 'formo.' Sometimes, also, ād denotes the approach of time; as, ād lācem, ād eepēram, ād extrēmum, towards day-break, etc.; and also the actual arrival of a time; as, ād prima signa vēris profēcte at the first sign of Spring.

(5) In answer to the question Where? ād signifies 'rear' a place as, ād urbem esse; ād portas urbes; pugna næaßis ād Tæidum. It is used like m, 'at,' in such phrases as ād adem Bellöme, or, without adem, ād Opis; negotium habère ād portum.—With numerals it nay be rendered 'to the amount of or 'nearly'; as, ād ducentos. It is also used like circiter without any case; as, Occisis ād hominum millibus quutuor.—The phrase omnes ād ūnum signifies, 'all without exception,' every one.'

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(c.) Ad often denotes an object or purpose, and hence comes its signification of 'in respect to'; as, hōmo ād labōres belli impiger. It is also used in figurative relations to denote a model, standard, or object of comparison, where we say 'according to,' or 'in comparison with'; as, ād modum, ād efficiem, ād similitudinem, ād speciem aliciņus rei; ād normam, etc. ād voluntāten aliciņus facére aliquid. Ad verbum signifies, 'word for word'; nihil ād hanc rem, 'nothing in

comparison with this thing.'

REM. 6. A pūd expresses nearness to, and was primarily used of persons as ad was applied to things. Apūd also denotes rest, and ād direction, motion, etc. Hence it signifies 'with,' both literally and figuratively. With names of places it signifies 'near,' like ād; as, Māle pugnātum est āpūd Coulām. But in early writers, āpūd is used for tn; as, Augustus āpūd urbem Nolam extinctus est,—at Nola.—With me, te, se, or the name of a person, it signifies at the house or 'dwelling of'; as, Fuisti āpūd Lexcam illā nocte.—Before appellatives of persons having authority in regard to any matter, it is translated 'before,' in the presence of'; as, āpūd Jucies, āpūd practorem, āpād popūlum.—It is also used with names of authors, instead of in with the name of their works; as, Apūd Xeno-phontem, but we cannot say in Xenophonte.

Rem. 7. Adversis, contrā, and $erg\bar{a}$ signify 'opposite to.' Contrā debenstility, like our 'against'; $erg\bar{a}$, a friendly disposition, 'towards'; and adversis is used in either sense. But $erg\bar{a}$ sometimes occurs in a hostile sense.

REM. 8. Intrā signifies 'within,' in regard both to time and place. In regard to place it is used in answer to both questions Where? and Whither? It denotes time either as an entire period, when it is equivalent to 'during,' or as 'unfinished,' when it corresponds with 'under,' or 'before the expiration of.'

REM. 9. Pēr, denoting place, signifies, 'through,' and also 'in,' in the sense of 'throughout.'—With the accusative of persons it signifies 'through,' 'by the matrumentality of.' It often expresses the manner; as, pêr litêras, by letter; pêr injuriam, pêr sellus, with injustice, criminally; pêr iram, from or in anger; pêr simulationem, pêr speciem, pêr cousam, under the pretext; pêr occasionem, on the occasion; pêr ridiculum, in a ridiculous manner.—It sometimes signifies 'on account of'; as, pêr valetudinem, on account of illness.—Pêr me lect,—so far as I am concerned.

Rem. 10. A or ā b, denoting time, is used with nouns, both abstract and concrete, with the same general meaning; as, ā primā arāte, āb inente etāte, āb adolescentālo, āb infante, all of which signify 'from an enrly age!' So also, ā parvis, ā parvis, ā benefo, ā tenēro, ā tenēro; signify 'from an enrly age!' So also, ā parvis, ā parvis, ā principio, ā primo, properly denote the space of time from the beginning down to a certain point; as, Urben Roman ā principio rēges habāre, i. e. for a certain period after its foundation. But frequently āb initio is equivalent to initio, in the beginning.—The adherents or followers of a school are often named from its head; as, ā Platone, āb Aristotēle, etc.—In comic writers āb is sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, ancilia ab Andriā.—In a figurative sense it signifies 'with regard to '; as, āb equilātu firmus.—With names of persons it also denotes relationship, and signifies 'on the side of '; as, Augustus ā matre Magnum Pompeium artissimo contingebut grādu,—on his mother's side.—Stātina, confestim, rēcens āb aliquā re, 'innmediately after.'—Ab titaire adjuud face'r, to do a thing while on a journey.

REM. 11. Cum is used not only to designate accompanying persons but also accompanying circumstances; as, cum aliquo ire; hostes cum detrimento sunt

- depulsi. It signifies also 'in,' i. e. 'dressed in'; ss, cum tunică pullă sedère. With verbs implying hos liiv, it signifies with,' in the sense of 'against'; as, cum aliquo bellum gerêre; cum aliquo quêri to complain of or against.
- REM. 12. $D\bar{e}$ commonly signifies 'concerning,' 'about.' Hence traditur de Homèro is very different from traditur de Homèro; in the former, Homer is the object, in the latter the agent.—In the epistolary style, when a new subject is touched upon, de signifies 'in regard to,' as respects'; as, de frâter, conj'id at ease, at semper volui.—It often signifies 'down from'; and also 'of,' in a partitive sense; as, hōmo de plêbe, ūnus de populo.—From its partitive significant on arises is use in denoting time; as, in contitum de nocte entre, i. e. even production arises is use in denoting time; as, in contitum de nocte entre, i. e. even pringht, or spending a part of the night in coming; hence multi de nocte, medide nocte, in the depth of night,' in the middle of the night.'—In other cases, also, it is used for ex or db; as, Auditu hoc de parente meo puer. Cic.; especially in connection with entre, mercâri, conducere. Triumphum agére de Cultis and ex Gallis are used indiscriminately.—Sometimes, like sécundum, it signifies 'in accordance with,' after'; as, de consilio meo:—sometimes it denotes the manner of an action; as, denou, de integro, aftesh; de improviso, unexpectedly; de industria, purposely:—quá de re, quá de causá, quibus de causis, for which reason or reasons.
- Rem. 13. Ex, 'from,' 'out of.' Ex èquo pugnare, to fight on horseback; so ex itinêre scribr re: ex adverso, è regione, opposite; ex omni parte, in or from all parts—Ex vino or ex dqua coquere or bibêre, i. e. 'with wine,' etc. are medical expressions.—It sometimes denotes manner; as, ex animo laudare, to praise heartily; ex sententia and ex voluntate, according to one's wish.—It is also, like de, used in a partitive sense; as, inus è piche, inus è multis.
- REM. 14. In, with the accusative, signifying 'to' or 'into,' denotes the point towards which motion proceeds; as, in adem ire; or the direction in which a thing extends; as, dieem pêdes in altitudinem, in height; so, also, it denotes figuratively the object towards which an action is directed, either with a friendly or a hostile design; as, amor in patrium, odium in malos cives, in milites liberòlis'; oratio in aliquem, a speech accinst some one—It also denotes a purpose; as, perunia data est in rem militairem. Pax data Philippo in has leges est, on these conditions.—With words denoting time, it expresses a predetermination of that time, like 'for'; as, incitare adjacem in posterum diem, for the following day. In diem viere, to live only for the day; in futurum in posterum, in reliquem, for the future; in acterum, in perpetum, forever; in presens, for the present: with all these adjectives tempus may be supplied. In with singuil, expressed or understood, denotes a distribution, and may be translated 'to,' 'for,' 'on,' 'over.'—In singuilos dies, or simply in dies, with comparatives and verbs denoting increase, signifies 'from day to day.'—In some phrases it denotes the manner of an action; as, servilem in modum, mirum in modum; so in universum, in general; in common; in vicem, alternately, or, instead of; in alicājus locum aliquid petère, in the place, or, instead of; in alicājus locum aliquid petère,
- REM. 15. In., with the ablative, signifies 'in,' 'on,' 'upon,' and answers to the question, Where? When a number or quantity is indicated, it signifies 'among,' and is equivalent to inter. It may sometimes be translated 'with,' or 'notwithstanding'; as, In summa copia oratorum, nemo timen Cocronis laudem copia oratorum, nemo timen Cocronis educatem copia oratorum, nemo timen Cocronis to When? It is expressed by the simple ablative; but in is used with words which acquire the signification of time only by such connection; as, in considiat in principio, in bello; but even with these in is sometimes omitted, but is usually retained in connection with the gerund or gerundive; as, in legenda, in legenda libris. In presenti, or in presentia, signifies 'at the present moment,' for the present.'—Est in eo, ut aliquid fiat signifies that scmething is on the point of happening.

PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

- § 196. Most of the prepositions are used also in forming compound words. In composition, they may be considered either in reference to their form, or their force.
- I. (a.) Prepositions in composition sometimes retain their final consonants, and sometimes change them, to adapt them to the sounds of the initial consonants of the words with which they are compounded. In some words, both forms are in use; in others, the final consonant or consonants are omitted.
- 1. A, in composition, is used before m and v; as, āmôveo, ārello, and sometimes before f in āfui and āfôre, for abfui and affôre. Ab is used before vowels, and before d, f, h, j, t, n, r, and s; as, abjūro, abrōgo, etc. Abs occurs only before c, q, and t; as, absombo, absome, abstineo. In aspello, aspernor, and asporto, the b of abs is dropped; in auf êro and aufugio, it is changed into u.
- 2. Ad remains unchanged before vowels and before b, d, h, n, v. It often changes d into c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t, before those letters respectively; as, co-cèdo, affèro, aggrédor, alligo, anattor, appēno, arrigo, asséguor, attoilo. Its d is usually omitted before s followed by a consonant, and before gn; as, agpergo, agricio, aggaoco, agrátus. Before q, the d is changed into c; as, acquires
- 3. Ante remains unchanged, except in anticipo and antisto, where it changes e to i; but antesto also occurs.
- 4. Circum in composition remains unchanged, only in circumeo and its derivatives the m is often dropped; as, circueo, circuitus, etc.
- 5. Cum (in composition, com), retains m before b, m, p; as, combibo, commito, compono: before l, m, r, its m is changed into those letters respectively; as, colligo, comintor, corripio: before other consonants, it becomes n; as, condiaco, conjungo. Before a vowel, gn or h, m is commonly omitted; as, coo, couplo, copnosco, cohabito; but it is sometimes retained; as, comédo, comes, comitor. In côgo and côgito a contraction also takes place; as, côdigo, côgo, etc. In combiro, b is inserted.
- 6. Ex is prefixed to vowels, and to c, h, p, q, s, t; as, exeo, exigo, excurro, exhelo, expédio. Before f, xi sassimilated, and also rarely becomes ec; as, effire, or ecféro. S after x is often omitted; as, exèquor, for exèquor; in excidium (from execindo), s is regularly dropped. E is prefixed to the other consonants, ε biblo, edito, except in eclex. Before these however, with the exception of n and r, ex is sometimes used; as, exmôveo. E is sometimes used before p; as, èpôto.
- 7. In remains unchanged before a vowel. Before b, m, p, it changes n into m; as, imbuo, immitto, impōno: before d and r, n is assimilated; as, iligo, irrētio: before d an is omitted; as, ignārus. Before the other consonants in is unchanged. In some compounds, in retains d before a vowel, from an ancient form indu; as, indigéna, indigeo, indolesco. So anciently induperator, for imperator,
- 8. Inter remains unchanged, except in intelligo and its derivatives, in which r before l is assimilated.
- 9. Ob remains unchanged before vowels and generally before consonants. Its b is assimilated before c, f, g, p; as, occurro, offtcio, oggannio, oppèto. In bmilto, b is dropped. An ancient form obs, analogous to abs for ab, is implied in obsolesco, from the s mple verb oleo, and in ostendo, for obstendo.
- Per is unchanged in composition, except in pellicio and sometimes in pelliceo, in which r is assimilated before l. In pɨjēro, r is dropped.
- Post remains unchanged, except in pomarium and pomeridianus, in which st is dropped.

12. Præ and præter in composition remain unchanged, except that præ is shortened before a vowel. Cr. § 283, II Exc. 1.

13. Pro has sometimes its vowel shorts 2ed, (cf. § 285, 2, Exc. 5) and, to avoid hiatus, it sometimes takes d before a vowel; as, prodeo, prodesse, produgo. Before verbs beginning with r and l, pro sometimes becomes por and pol; as, porrigo, politecor.

14. Sāb in composition remains unchanged before a vowel and before b, d, j, l, n, s, t, v. Before c, f, g, m, p, r, its b is regularly assimilated; as, succido, suffèro, susgéro, summocco, supplico, surripio. Before c, p, and t, it sometimes takes the form sus from subs, analogous to abs and obs; as, suscipio, suspendo, restable b is omitted before s, followed by a consonant; as, suspico.

Subter and super in composition remain unchanged.

16. Trans remains unchanged before a vowel. It omits s before s; as, transcendo: in trādo, trādāco, trājācio, and trāno, ns is commonly omitted.

(b.) The following words are called inseparable prepositions, because they are found only in composition:—

Ambĭ or amb, (Greek ἀμφί), around, about. Rĕd or rĕ, again, back. Vē, not. Dīs or dī, asunder. Sē, apart, aside.

 Amb is always used before a vowel; as, ambāges, ambarnālis, ambēdo, ambīgo, ambio, ambūro: except ampulla, āmicro, and āmbēlo. Before consonants it has the forms ambi; as, ambulens, ambifariam, amberium: am; as, amplector, ampāto: or an; as, anceps, anfractus, ampairo.

2. Dis is prefixed to words beginning with c, p, q, s before a vowel, t, and h; as, discitle, dispône, et p. si changed into f; as, differe in dirine, and diribe (rind dis hébee), s becomes r. Di is prefixed to the other consonants, and to s when followed by a consonant; as, diduce, dimitte, distingue, dispicie. But both dis and di are used before j; as, disjunge, dijalice, and before r in rumpe.

3. Rėd is used before a vowel or h: re before a consonant; as, rėdamo, rėdeo, rėdibo, rėdib

 Sē and vē are prefixed without change; as, sēcēdo, sēcūrus; vēgrandis, vēcors.

§ 197. II. Prepositions in composition usually add their own signification to that of the word with which they are united; but sometimes they give to the compound a meaning different from that of its simples. The following are their most common significations:—

A, or ab, away, from, down; entirely; un— With verbs it denotes removal, disappearance, absence; as, aufero, abator, absum. With adjectives it denotes absence, privation; as, āmes, absonus.

2. Ad to, toward; at, by. In composition with verbs ad denotes (a) motion to (not into), as accēdo; (b) addition, as, ascribo; (c) nearness, as, assidor; (d) assent, fivor, as, annuo, arrideo; (e) repetition and hence intensity, as, accido; (f) at, in consequence of, as, arrigo. It is sometimes augmentative, rarely inchositive.

3. Ambi, around, about, on both sides.

4. Circum, around, about, on all sides.

5. Côm or côn, together, entirely. In composition with verbs it denotes (a) union, as, concurro, consilo; (b) completeness, as, combūro, conficio; (c) unih effort, as, conficio, conclaino; (d) in harmony, as, consono, consentio; (e) on or over, like the English be-as, collino, to basinear.

- 6. Contra, against, opposite.
- 7. Di, off, away, through, over, down; entirely; very, extremely. With verbs de denotes (a) do m; as, démitto; (b) removal; as, détondeo; (c) abunce; as, désum, adabeo; (d) prevention; as, délortor; (e) suffriendly feelan; as, despicio, dérideo.—With adjectives de denotes (a) down; as, dèclivis; (b) without; as, demens.
- 8. Dis, asunder, apart, in pieces, in two; dis-, un-; very greatly. With verbs dis denotes (a) division; as, divido, dilabor; (b) difference; as, discrepo, dissentio; (c) the recerse of the simple notion; as, displiceo, diffido; (d) intensity; as, dilaudo.—With adjectives dis denotes difference; as, discolor, discors.
- 9. E, or ex, out, forth, away, upward, without, -less, un-; utterly, completely, very. With verbs it denotes (a) out; as, exco, eximo, elibbor; (b) re-moved of something; as, edormic; (c) publicity; as, edico; (d) ascent; as, exsisto; (e) completeness; as, edisco, exiro; (f) with denominative verbs, change of character; as, expio, effero (are); (g) removed of what is expressed by the noun whence the verb is derived; as enodo; (h) the reversal of the fundamental idea; as, explico; (i) distance; as, exaudio.—With adjectives formed from substantives it denotes absence; as, excommis.
- 10. In, with verbs, signifies in, on, at; into, against; as, inhábito, induo, ingimo, inco, ilido. With adjectives, un-, in-, in-, ij, ir-, unc; as, ignotus, inhabitalis, immortalis. Some of its compounds have contrary significations, according as they are participles or adjectives; as, intectus, part., covered, adj., un covered.
 - 11. Inter, between, among, at intervals.
- 12. Ob, with verbs, signifies to, towards; as, obeo, ostendo; against; as, obluctor, obnuntio; at, before; as, obambalo, obsersor; upon; as, occulco; over; as, obdico.
- 13. Per, with verbs, denotes, through, thoroughly, perfectly, quite; as, perduco, perficio, perdo: with adjectives, through, very; as, pernox, perlevis.
 - 14. Post, after, behind.
- 15. Pree in composition with verbs denotes (a) before in place; as, præmitto; (b) by or past; as, præfluo; (c) in command; as, præsum, præflici; (d) superiority; as, præsum; (e) before in time; as, prædlico, præcerpo; at the extremdy; as, prædiro.—With adjectives, (a) before in place or time; as, præceps, præscius; (b) erey; as, prædliva, prædliva.
 - 16. Præter, past, by, beyond, besides.
- 17. Prō, before, forward, forth, away, down; for; openly; as, prōlūdo, por-rīgo, prōlerreo, prōlēro, prōcūro, prōfiteor.
- Rē, again, against, back, re-, un-, away; greatly; as, rēfloresco, rēpendo, rēf ērio, rēf īgo, rēcondo.
 - Sē, without, aside, apart; as, sēcūro, sēpōno, sēcēdo, sēcūrus.
- 20. Sūb up, from below upwards, under. With verbs sūb also signifies (a) assistance; as, subvenio; (b) surcession; as, succino; (c) in place of; as, sufficio; (d) near; as, subsum; (e) secretly, claudestinely; as, surripio, subdūco; (f) somewhat, a little; as, subrideo, sūbaccūso.—With adjectives it signifies, sliephtly, rather; as, sūbobscūrus, sūbabscūrus, sūbaccūso.
 - 21. Subter, beneath, under, from under, secretly, privately.
- Super, above, over, left over, remaining, super-; as, supersedeo, supersum, superstes, supervacaneus.
- Trans, over, across, through; beyond; as, trādo, transeo, transfigo, transalpīnus.
 - 24. Vē, not, without; very; as, vēgrandis, vēcors; vēpallidus.

REMARK. In composition the preposition seems often to add nothing to the signification of the word with which it is compounded.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 198. A conjunction is a particle which connects words of propositions.

The most usual conjunctions are,

ātque, and, as; than. āc si, as if. adeo, so that, so. an, anne, whether. annon, whether or not. antequam, before. ăt, ast, but. at enim, but indeed. atqui, but. attāměn, but yet. aut, either, or. aut ... aut, either ... or. autem, but. cēterum, but, however ceu, as, like as, as if. cum or quum, since. donec. as long as, until dum, provided, while, as long as, until dummodo, if but, if only. enimvero, in very deed. ěnim, etenim, for. eo, therefore. equidem, indeed. ergo, therefore. ět, and. ět...ět both ... and; ět...quě, as well...as. ět...něque or něc, on the one hand, but not on the quārē. ětiam, also. ětiamsi,) although, though. iccirco,) Ideo. therefore. -quě...èt, Igitur, -que...-que, as well...as. Itaquě licet, though, although. quiă, becausé. quin, but that, that not. modo, provided. nam, namquě, for. quippě, because.

nē, lest, that not. -ně, whether. nëque or nëc, neither, nor. něque...něque, něc...něc, neither. něque...něc, ...nor. něc...něque, necně, or not. něquě, neither, nor. něquě or něc...ět, něquě or něc...quě, \ on the one hand, but on the other. nëve or neu, nor, and not. nēve...nēve, / neither ... neu...neu, nor. ni, nisi, unless. num, whether. præut, in comparison with. prout, according as, just as, as. proinde, hence, therefore. propterea, therefore, for that reason. postquam, after, since. priusquam, before. quam, as, than. quamvis, although. quando, quandoquidem, whereas, since. quamquain, although. quäpropter, wherefore. quamobrem, quöcircă, quantumvis, | although, quamlibet, however. quasi, as if, just as. -quě, and.) both...and;

quo, in order that. quoăd, as long as, until quod, because, but. quodsī, but if. quominus, that not. quoniam, since, because. quŏquĕ, also. quuin or cum, when, since because. quum...tum, both ... and. sěd, but. sicut, { so as, just as, as. sī, if. sī mŏdo, if only. simŭl, as 300m simulac (-atque) as. sin, but if, if however. sīvē or seu, or if. sīvě...sīvě, | whether...or. seu...seu, siquidem, if indeed, since. tămen, however, still. tametsi, although. tamquam, as if. tum...tum, both ... and. undě, whence. ŭt, that, as that, so that, ŭtī, to the end that. ŭt sī, as if. utrum, whether. věl, either, or. věl...věl, either...or. vělůt, | even as, just as, vělůtī, | like as. vēro, truly, but indeed. vērum. but. vēruntămēn, yet, notwith standing.

vērum-ĕnim vēro. but in

deed.

Conjunctions, according to their different uses, are divided into two general classes,—coordinate and subordinate.

 Coördinate conjunctions, are such as join coördinate or similar constructions; as,

Luno et stellæ fulgëbant, The moon and the stars were shining. Concident renti, fugiuntque nubes, The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Difficile actu est, sed conabor tamen, It is difficult to accomplish but still I will try.

Coordinate conjunctions include the following subdivisions, viz. cop. ative disjunctive, adversative, illative, and most of the causal conjunctions.

II. Subordinate conjunctions are such as join dissimilar constructions; as,

Edo, ut vivam, I eat that I may live. Pyrrhus rex in itinëre incidit in canem, qui interfecti hominis corpus custodicbat. Mergi pullos in aquam jussit, ut bibërent, quoniam esse nollent.

Subordinate conjunctions include all those connectives which unite subordinate or dependent clauses. These are the concessive, illative, final, conditional, interrogative, and temporal conjunctions, and the causals quod, quam, quotann, etc. To these may be added also the relatives whether pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

The following paragraphs contain a specification of the several conjunctions comprised in each of the preceding subdivisions, and remarks respecting their particular import and use as connectives.

1. Copulative conjunctions connect things that are to be considered jointly; as, δt , δc , $a \ell q u \ell$, the enclitic $q u \ell$, which, combined with the negation belonging to the verb, becomes $n \ell q u \ell$ or $n \ell c$, and, the negation being doubled, $n \ell c \ell n \delta n$ or $n \ell q u \ell n \delta n$, it becomes again affirmative and equivalent to ℓt . To these are to be added $\ell t \ell n m$ and $\ell u \delta q u \ell n \ell n \ell$, with the adverbials $\ell \ell m$ and $\ell t \ell d \ell m$.

REMARK. (a.) Et and que differ in this, et connects things which are conceived as different, and que adus what belongs to, or naturally flows from them. Et, therefore, is copulative and que adjunctive. Hence, in an enumeration of words, que frequently connects the last of the series, and by its means the preceding idea is extended without the addition of any thing which is generically different. In connecting propositions que denotes a consequence, and is equivalent to 'and therefore.'

(b) Ac never stands before vowels, adjué chiefly before vowels, but also before consonants.—Adjué, being formed of ād and quêt, properly signifies 'and also,' 'and in addition,' thus putting things on an equality, but giving emphasis to the latter. In the beginning of a proposition, which is explanatory of that which precedes, adjué or āc introduces a thing with great weight, and may be rendered 'now'; and in answers; as, Cognostine hos versus? Ac memoriter, it is rendered 'yes, and that.' Ac being an abridged form of adjué loses somewhat of its power in connecting single words, and its use alternates with that of êt; it is preferred in subdivisions, whereas the main propositions are commetted by èt.

(c.) Něquě, compounded of the ancient në for něn and quē, is used for ět nón. Et nôn itself is used, when only one idea or one word of a proposition is to be negatived; as, patior et non moleste fero; and also when our 'and not' is used for 'and not rather' to correct an improper supposition; as, Si quam Rubius injuriam suo nomine ac non impulsu tuo fecissel. Cic. Et nôn is commonly found also in the second clause of a sentence when ět precedes, but nêquê, also, is often used in this case. Nêc nôn or nêquê nôn, in classical prose, is not used like ét to connect nouns, but only to join propositions, and the two words are, separated. In later writers, however, they are not separated and are equivalent to ét.

(a) Etiam has a wider extent than quagnae, for it contains the idea of our even; and it also adds a new circumstance, whereas quagnae denotes the addition of a thing of a similar kind. Hence êtiam is properly used to connect sentences, while quagnate refers to a single word. Etiam signifies 'and further,' quagna', also, 'also.' Quagnae always follows the word to which it refers, etiam in similar cases is usually placed before it, but when it connects propositions its place is arbitrary. Et too, in classical prose, is sometimes used in the sense of 'alsa'. So often is non model—sêd êt, 'not only—but also,' or 'but vecn.'

(c.) Copulative conjunctions are often repeated in the sem s of 'both—and,' as well—as,' into only—but also' $EL = \bar{e}t$ is of common occurrence; so, thater writers, but rarely in Cicero, $\bar{e}t = qu\bar{e}$; $qu\bar{e} = \bar{e}t$ commet single words, but not in Cicero; $qu\bar{e} = qu\bar{e}t$, occur for the most part only in poetry, or in connection with the relative.—Negative propositions are connected in English by 'neither—nor,' and in Latin by $n\bar{e}qu\bar{e} = n\bar{e}qu\bar{e}t$, $n\bar{e}c = n\bar{e}r$, $n\bar{e}qu\bar{e}t$, and rarely by $n\bar{e}c = n\bar{e}r$, $n\bar{e}t$. Propositions, one of which is negative and the other affirmative 'on the one hand—but not on the other,' are connected by $\bar{e}t = n\bar{e}qu\bar{e}t$ or $n\bar{e}c = n\bar{e}t$, and occasionally by $n\bar{e}c = n\bar{e}qu\bar{e}t = qu\bar{e}t$.

2. DISJUNCTIVE conjunctions connect things that are to be considered sepa-

rately; as, aut, věl, the enclitic vě, and sīvě or seu.

REMARK. (a) Aut and vil differ in this; aut indicates a difference of the object, vil, a difference of expression, i. e. aut is objective, vil, subjective. Vil is connected with the verb velle, and is generally repeated, vil—vil, choose this or choose this, and the single vil is used by Cieero only to correct a preceding expression, and commonly combined with dicam, points, or étium.—Hence by ellipsis vil has acquired the signification of the adverb, 'even,' and so enhances the signification of the word modified by it; as, Quam Sophole's vel optime scripsivit Electrum, where bêne is to be supplied before vel, and the latter is used for the purpose of correcting the preceding expression. Cf. § 127, 4. By means of its derivation from velle it has, also, the signification of 'for example' or 'to take a case,' for which viliat is more frequently used.—(b.) 1°c, the apocopated vil, leaves the choice free between two or more things, and in

later but good prose vel is used in the same manner.

(c.) Sive commonly retains the meaning of \$i\$, and is then the same as \$r\vec{e}l\$ si, but sometimes loses it, and is then equivalent to \$v\vec{e}l\$, denoting a difference of name; as, Focabilam sive appellatio. Quint. The form sen is rarely used by Cicero except in the combination seu pôtius.—(d.) Aut and \$v\vec{e}s\$ except in the combination seu pôtius.—(d.) Aut and \$v\vec{e}s\$ except in the combination seu pôtius.—(d.) Aut and \$v\vec{e}s\$ except in the negation in negative sentences, where we use "nor"; as, \$n\vec{o}m = nu'\vec{e}s\$, norm—aut, where \$n\vec{o}m = ne'\vec{e}qu\vec{e}\$ also may be used. They are used also in negative questions; as, Num leges nostross moresse novit? Cic.; and after comparatives; as, Doctrina paulo asp\vec{e}prior, quam veritus aut natara patietur. Cic. It is omy when bot ideas are to be united into one that a copulative is used instead of aut and \$v\vec{e}\$. (e.) 'Either—or' is expressed in Latin by aut—aut, denoting an opposition between two things, one of which excludes the other, or by \$v\vec{e}l - v\vec{e}l\$, denoting that the opposition is immaterial in respect to the result, so that the one need not exclude the other; as, \$V\vec{e}i\$ imperatore vel milite me ulimin. Sall.—\$i\vec{e}s\$ is the same as \$v\vec{e}l\$ si-v\vec{e}l\$ si, and retains the meaning of \$v\vec{e}l - v\vec{e}l\$. If nouns only are opposed to each other, an uncertainty is expressed as to how a thing is to be called; as, \$Cr\vec{e}tum \vec{e}vec{e}sq \vec{e}pas sive Inplier or Minos \vec{e}snxxii; i. e. I do not know whether I am to say Jupiter or Minos.

3. COMPARATIVE conjunctions express a comparison. These are, ăt or ăti, sīcăt, vēlāt, proāt, proāt, preāt, the poetical ceu, quam, tamquam, (with and without sī), quāsī, āt sī, āc sī, with āc and atquē, when they sig-

nify 'as.'

REMARK. Ac and atqué signify as' or 'than' after adverbs and adjectives which denote similarity or dissimilarity; as, equé, juztá, pār and pāritēr, pērindē and proindē, pro co, similis and similiter, dissimilis, tālis, tōtidem, dīlius and ālitēr, contrā, sēcās, contrārius.—Quam is rarely used after these words, except when a negative particle is joined with alius; as, Virtus nihil aliud est, nuam, etc.; and ēt and qué do not occur in this connection.—Ac is used for quam, after comparatives, in poetry and occasionally by late prose writers; as, Artius atque hedêra. Hor. Insānius ac si. Id.

4. Concessive conjunctions express a concession, with the general signification 'although.' These are etsi, étiamsi, tametsi, or taménetsi, quamquam, quammis, quantumvis, quamtibét, licét, üt in the sense of even if or 'although,' and quum when it signifies 'although.'

REMARK. Tamén and other particles signifying 'yet,' 'still,' are the correlatives of the concessive conjunctions; as, Ut desint vires, tamen est laudanda

roluntas. Ovid. The adverb quidem becomes a concessive cor pure on, when it is used to connect propositions and is followed by scid.—Quamquam in absolute sentences, sometimes refers to something preceding, which it limits and partly nullifies; as, Quamquam quid loquor? Yet why do I speak?

5. Conditional conjunctions express a condition, their fundamental signification being 'if.' These are $s\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}n$, $n\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$ or $n\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{o}do$, $dum\,m\bar{o}d\bar{o}$, 'if only,' 'if but,' (for which dum and $m\bar{o}do$ are also used alone), dum. $m\bar{o}d\bar{o}$ $n\bar{e}$, or simply $m\bar{o}d\bar{o}$ $n\bar{e}$ or $dum\,n\bar{e}$.

REMARK. (a.) In order to indicate the connection with a preceding proposition, the relative quoid, which in such case loses its signification as a pronoun, and may be rendered, 'nay,' 'now,' 'and,' or 'then,' is frequently put before st and sometimes before nist and etsi, so that quodsi may be regarded as one word, signifying 'now it,' but it,' or 'if then.' It serves especially to introduce something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn.' It sometimes signifies 'although.' Quodnist signifies 'if them—not,' and quodesti,' nay, even it.' Quod is signifies 'if them—not,' and quodesti,' nay, even it.' Quod is signifies 'if them—not, and quodesti,' nay, even it.'

(b) Ni and misl limit a statement by introducing an exception, and thus differ from si nôn, which introduces a negative case. It is often immaterial whether nisi or si nôn is used, but the difference is still essential. Si nôn is used but the difference is still essential. Si nôn is used when single words are opposed to one another, and in this case si minis may be used instead of si nôn.—If after an affirmative proposition its negative opposite is added without a verb, our 'but if not' is commonly expressed in prose by si minis or sin minis or sin dilter; as, Educ tecum eliam onnes twos;

si mīnus, quam plurimos. Cic.; rarely by sī non.

6. ILLATIVE conjunctions express an inference or conclusion, with the general signification of 'therefore,' 'consequently.' These are ergo, tgitur, Itaqué, eô, ideo, iccirco, proindé, proptèrea, and the relative conjunctions, quaproptèr, quaré, quamobrem, quôcirca, undé, 'wherefore.'

REMARK. Ergo and igitin denote a logical inference—Itique, 'and thus,' expresses the relation of cause in facts.—Ideo, iccirco, and prophera, 'on this account,' express the agreement between intention and action.—Ide, 'on this account,' or 'for this purpose,' is more frequently an adverb of place.—Prointe,' consequently,' implies an exhortation.—Unite,' whence,' is properly an adverb of place.—deeo, 'so that,' or simply 'so,' is also properly an adverb. Hinc, 'hence,' and inde,' thence,' continue to be adverbs.

7. CAUSAL conjunctions express a cause or reason, with the general signification of 'for' and 'because.' These are nam, namqué, ênim, êtênim, quia, quóa, quóniam, quippé, quum, quando, quandòquidem siquidem; and the adverbs nimirum, nempé, scilicét, and vidélicét.

REMARK. (a.) Nam is used at the beginning of a proposition, čnim, after the first or second word. Nam introduces an objective reason, and enim merely a subjective one. There is the same difference between namque and etenim. Namque, however, though constantly standing at the beginning of a proposition in Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, is in later writers often put after the beginning. Enim in the sense of at enim or sed enim is sometimes, by comic writers, put at the beginning of a proposition.—Nam, čnim, and čtčnim are often used in the sense of 'namely,' or 'to wit,' to introduce an explanation of something going before. Nimīrum, vidēlicēt, and scīlicēt likewise answer to our 'namely' or 'viz.' Nimīrum, compounded of nī and mīrum, and signifying a wonder if not,' is used as a connective in the sense of 'undoubtedly' surely,' and implies strong confidence in the truth of the proposition with which it is connected .- Videlicet and scilicet introduce an explanation, with this difference that ridelicet generally indicates the true, and scilicet a wrong explanation. Sometimes, however, nam, ěnim, ětěnim, nīmīrum, and vidēlicēt are used in an ironical sense, and scilicet introduces a true reason .- Nempe surely,' often assumes a sarcastic meaning when another person's concession is taken for the purpose of refuting him .- (b.) Quia and quod indicate a definite and conclusive reason, quoniam, (i. e. quum jam), a motive.—Ideo, iccirco, propterea quod, and quia, are used without any essential difference, except that uia introduces a more strict and logical reason, whereas quomam, signifying now as, introduces important circumstances.— Quando, quandoquidem, and siquidem approach nearer to quoniam than to quid, as they introduce only subjective reasons. Quandoquidem denotes a reason implied in a circumstance previously mentioned; siquidem, a reason implied in a concession. In siquidem the meaning of si is generally dropped, but it sometimes remains, and then si and quidem should be written as separate words; as, O fortunatam rempublicam, si quidem hanc sentinam ejecerit. Cic.—Quippe, with the relative pronoun or with quum, introduces a subjective reason. When used elliptically without a verb it signifies 'forsooth' or 'indeed.' Sometimes it is followed by a sentence with enim, and in this way gradually acquires the signification of nam.

8. Final conjunctions express a purpose, object, or result, with the signifi-

cation of 'in order that,' or 'in order that not.' These are u or u ti, quo, ne or u t ne, ne ve or ne u, quin and quominus.

REMARK. U, as a conjunction indicates either a result or a purpose, 'so that,' and 'in order that.' When indicating a result, if a negative is added to it, it becomes u non; when indicating a purpose, if the negative is added, it, it becomes u non; when indicating a purpose, if the negative is added, it, it becomes u non; when indicating a purpose, if the negative is added, it, it becomes u non; when indicating a purpose, if the negative is added, it, it becomes u non; and it is very representation. becomes $n\tilde{e}$ or $\tilde{u}t$ $n\tilde{e}$, but $\tilde{u}t$ $n\tilde{u}n$ also is very rarely used for $n\tilde{e}$.—Nev \tilde{e} (i.e. $v\tilde{e}l$ $n\tilde{e}$) signifies either 'or in order that not,' or 'and in order that not.' Ut $n\tilde{e}$ is a pleonasm, not differing perceptibly from $n\tilde{e}$. It is used more frequently by * Quố në for në occurs once in Horace. Cicero than by other writers.

9. Adversative conjunctions, express opposition, with the signification of 'but.' These are sed, autem, verum, vero, at (poetical ast), at enim, atqui, tamen, attamen, sedtamen, veruntamen, at vero

(čnimvěro), vēruměnim, vērum, vēro, cētěrum. REMARK. (a.) Sěd denotes a direct opposition, and interrupts the narrative or argument; autem marks a transition, and denotes at once a connection and an opposition. Porro, 'further,' denotes progression and transition but not opposition, except in later authors .- Vērum has a similar relation to vēro as sed to Vērum, while it denotes opposition, contains also an explanation. Vēr: connects things which are different, but denotes the point in favor of which the decision should be. It thus forms the transition to something more important as in the phrase, Illud vero plane non est ferendum, i. e. that which I am about to mention. In affirmative answers vero is often added to the verb; as, Dasne ? Do vero. Hence, when the protasis supplies the place of a question, it is sometimes introduced into the apodosis merely to show that it contains an answer. Hence als vero alone signifies 'yes,' like sane, ita, and etiam.—Enimvero, 'yes, truly, 'in truth,' does not denote opposition. It sometimes, like vero, forms the transition to that which is most important. The compound verum enimvēro denotes the most emphatic opposition.

(b.) At denotes that that which is opposed is equivalent to that which precedes. It frequently follows st, in the sense of 'yet,' or 'at least'; as, etsi non superatussimus, at amacissimus. It is especially used to denote objections whether of the speaker himself or of others. At imm introduces a reason for the objection implied in at.—By atqua, 'but still,' 'but yet,' or 'nevertheless,' we admit what precedes, but oppose something else to it; as, Magnum narras, vix credibile. Atquirsic habet. Hor. So, also, when that which is admitted, is made use of to prove the contrary. Finally, utqui is used in syllogisms, when a thing is assumed which had before been left undecided; in this case it does not denote a direct opposition of facts, and may be translated by 'now,' 'but,' 'but now.—Ctérum, properly 'as for the rest,' is often used by later writers for séd.—Contra ea, in the sense of 'on the other hand,' is used as a conjunction. So adee with a pronoun, when it may be translated 'just,' 'precisely,' 'even,' thirded 'or an internity land.'

'indeed,' or an intensive 'and.'

 Temporal conjunctions, express time. These are quum, quum prinum, āt, āt prīmum, ābī, postquam, antēquam, and prīus-ram, quando, simālāc or simālatque, or sīmāt alone, cam quē aum, donēc, quoad. REMARK. Ut and ubi, as particles of time, signify 'when.' Dum, donée, and quoud signify either 'as long as,' or 'until.' Dum often precedes intered or interior, and both dum and donée are often preceded by the adverbs usque, usque or usque adde.

11. Interrogative conjunctions indicate a question. These are, numutrum, ān, and the enclitic nē. This, when attached to the three preceding particles, forming numnē, utrumnē, and annē, does not affect their meaning. With nōn it forms a special interrogative particle nonuē. To these add ec and ān, as they appear in ecquis, ecquando, and ēnum quaid and ecquid, when used simply as interrogative particle.

particles.

REMARK. (a.) The interrogative particles have no distinct meaning by themselves in direct questions, but only serve to give to a proposition the form of a question. In direct speech the interrogative particles are sometimes omitted, but in indirec, mustions they are indispensable, except in the case of a double question, where the first particle is sometimes omitted.—Ecquid and numquid, as interrogative particles, have the meaning of num, quid in this case having no meaning, but they must be carefully distinguished from the interrogative pronouns equid and numquid. En, or when followed by a q, ec is, like num, nef, and dn, an interrogative particle, but is always prefixed to some

other interrogative word.

(b.) In direct questions, num and its compounds numnë, numquid, numquidam, and the compounds with ën or ec suppose that the answer will be 'no'; as, Num putas me tun dementem fuisse? But ecquid is sometimes used in an affirmative sense. In general the negative sense of these particles does

not appear in indirect questions.

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(c.) No properly denotes simply a question, but it is used sometimes affirmatively and sometimes negatively. When not is attached, not to the principal verb but to some other word, a negative sense is produced; as, mene istud potaisse facere putas? Do you believe that I would have done that? The answer expected is 'no.' When attached to the principal verb no often gives the affirmative meaning, and the answer expected is 'yes.'—Nonné is the sign of an affirmative question; as, Cunis mone lapo simils est?—Urum, in accordance with its derivation from ûter, which of two, is used only in double questions whether consisting of two or more. It is sometimes accompanied by new, which is usually separated from it by one or more words; as, Utrum, luceanme an predicem? In later writers, however, utrumné is united into one word. Ne is rarely appended to interrogative adjectives, but examples of such use are sometimes found in poetry; as, uterné; quôné malo; quantané. In a few passages it is even attached to the relative pronoun.

(d.) An is not used as a sign of an indirect question before the silver age; when so used it answers to 'whether.' It is used by Ciecro exclusively in a second or opposite question, where we use 'or'; as, Si sitis, nihl interest utrum agua sit, an vinven; nec refert, utrum sit aureum poculuan, an vitreum, na manus comeára. Sen. In direct interrogations, when no interrogative clause precedes, in, amé, du véro are likewise used in the sense of 'or,' that is in such a manaer that a preceding interrogation is supplied by the mind; as, Invitas te offendi, an putus me delectari bedendis hominibus? Here we may supply before m putus, etc. the sentence, 'Do you believe this?' —An, after a preceding question, is rendered by 'not,' and it then indicates that the answer cannot be toubtful; as, A rebus gereulis senectus abstrakth. Quibus? An his, que geruntur juventate ac viribus? Is it not from those kinds of business, which? etc. Here we may suppose altisme? to be supplied before an his? Is it from other kinds of business, or from those? etc. Such questions may be introduced by nonné, but without allusion to an opposite question, which is implied in an.

(c.) To the rule that ān, in indirect questions, is used exclusively to indicate a second or opposite question, there is one great execution, for it is employed in single indirect questions after such expressions as dubito, dubium est, incertum est, delibbro, hasto, and especially after nescio or hand scio, all of which denote uncertainty, but with an inclination to the affirmative; as, Si per se virtus sine

fortint ponderands sit dubto hune primum omnium ponam, If virtue is to estimated without reference to its success, I am not certain whether I should not prefer this man to all others. Nep. It is not Latin to say dubto amon for dubto an.—Nescio an, or hand sio an are used quite in the sense of 'perhaps,' so that they are followed by the negatives nullus, neno, numquam, instead of ullus, quisquam and unaquam. When the principal verb is omitted, an is often used in the sense of aut, as, Themstockes, quam et Sunomides, an quis alius, arten memoriae policercur, etc. In such cases invertum est is understood, and in Tacitus is often supplied.—The conjunction is is sometimes used in indirect interrogations instead of num, like the Greek si, and it is so used by Cicero after the verb expérior.

Note 1. The conjunctions -ne, -que, -ve, are not used alone, but are always

affixed to some other word, and are hence called enclitics.

Nore 2. Some words here classed with conjunctions are also used as adverbs, and many classed as adverbs are likewise conjunctions; that is, they at the same time qualify verbs, etc., and connect propositions; as, Ceteris in rebus, quant venit calamitas, rum detrimentum accipitur, in other concerns, when misfortune comes, then damage is received.

Nore 3. Conjunctions, like adverbs, are variously compounded with other parts of speech, and with each other; as, adque, (i. e. adque), iccirce or ideireo, (i. e. id-circa), ideo, nanque, etc. In some, compounded of an adverb and a conjunction, each of the simple words retains its meaning, and properly belongs to its own class; ar, cliam (et jam) and now; itique, and so; neque or nee, and

not.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 199. An interjection is a particle used in exclamation, and expressing some emotion of the mind.

The most usual interjections are,

hem! oho! indeed! well! hah! alas! alask! āh! ah! alas! ăha! aha! ah! haha! heu! oh! ah! alas! heus! ho! ho there! hark! hallea! hui! hah! ho! oh! ăpăgě! away! begone! ătăt! or atatte! oh! ah! alas! lo! iō! ho! hurrah! huzzah! au! or han! oh! ah! ō! o! oh! ah! ecce! lo! see! behold! ōh! oh! o! ah! ěhem! ha! what! ēhen! ah! alas! ŏhē! ho! halloa! ho there! ěho! ehodum! ho! soho! ŏho! oho! aha! eiă! or heiă! ah! ah ha! indeed! oi! hoy! alas! păpæ! strange! wonderful en! lo! see! behold! phui! foh! fugh! phy! pish! tush! en! well done! bravo! engě! well done! good! pro! or proh! oh! ah! st! hist! whist! hush! enax! | huzzah! hurrah! ha! hold! ho! tatæ! so! strange! væ! ah! alas! woe! ha! ha! he! ha! ha! vah! vaha! ah! alas! oh! hei! ah! wo! alas!

REMARK 1. An interjection sometimes denotes several different smotions. Thus vah is used to express wonder, grief, joy, and anger.

Real. 2. Other parts of speech may sometimes be regarded as interjections; as, pax! be still! So indignam, infindum, midnum, miserum, miserabile, nifras, when used as expressions of astonishment, grief, or horror; and macte and macti, as expressions of approbation. In like manner the adverbs næ, profecto, etc, bline, belle; the verbs queso, précor, ôro, observo, amado, age, agite, eddo, soles, (for si audes), sis, sultis, (for si vis and si vultis), agésis, agédum, and agite dum, and ten interrogative quid? what? used as exclamations.

Rem. 3. With the interjections may also be classed the following invocations of the gods: hercüles, hercile, hercle; or mehercüles, mehercüle, medius fidlus, mecastor, ecastor, ecceptor, edepol, equirine, per deum, per deum inmortalem, per deos, per Jövem, pro (or proh) Japiter, pro di immurtales, pro deum fidem, pro deum atque hominum fidem, pro deum immortalium (scil. fidem), etc.

SYNTAX.

- § 200. 1. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 2. A sentence is a thought expressed in words; as, Cănes catrant, The dogs bark.
 - 3. All sentences are either
 - (1.) DECLARATIVE; as, Venti spirant, The winds blow:-
 - (2.) Interrogative; as, Spirantne venti? Do the winds blow?-
- (3.) EXCLAMATORY; as, Quam vehëmenter spirant venti! How fiercely the winds blow!—or
 - (4.) IMPERATIVE; as, Venti, spīrāte, Blow, winds.
- 4. The mood of the verb in the first three classes of sentences is either the indicative or the subjunctive; in imperative sentences it is either the Imperative or the subjunctive.
- 5. A sentence may consist either of one proposition or of two or mere propositions connected together.

PROPOSITIONS.

- § 201. 1. A proposition consists of a subject and a pre-
- 2. The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed.
 - 3. The predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject.

Thus, in the proposition, Equus currit, The horse runs, ĕquus is the subject and currit is the predicate.

Note. The word affirm, as here used, includes all the various significations of the verb, as expressed in the several moods.

- Propositions are either principal or subordinate.
- 5. A principal proposition is one which makes complete sense by itself; as,

Phōcion fuit perpětuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse posset, Phocion was always voor, though he might have been very rich.

 A subordinate proposition is one which, by means of a subordinate conjunction, is made to depend upon or limit some part of another proposition; as,

Phōcion fuit perpëtuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse posset, Phocion was al ways poor, though he might have been very rich.

Subordinate propositions are used either as substantives, adjectives, or adverbs, and are accordingly called substantive, adjective or adverbial propositions or clauses.

8. Substantive clauses are connected with the propositions on which they depend by means of the final conjunctions ut, ne, quo, quin, etc., sometimes by quod, and in clauses containing an indirect question, by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and conjunctions. See §§ 262 and 265.

REMARK. A dependent substantive clause often takes the form of the accusative with the infinitive and in that case has no connective; as, Gaudeo te valère.

 Adjective clauses are connected by means of relatives, both pronouns and pronominal adjectives; as, qui, qualis, quantus, etc. Adverbial clauses are connected either by relative adverbs of place and time, (§ 191, R. 1, (b.), or by temporal, conditional, concessive, comparative, and sometimes by causal conjunctions.

10. A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a *simple* sentence; as,

Cădunt fălia, The leaves fall. Semirămis Babylonem condidit.

11. A sentence consisting of a principal and one or more subordinate propositions is called a complex sentence; as,

Qui fit, ut nemo contentus vivat? How happens it, that no one lives content? Quis ego sim, me rogitas, You ask me, who I am.

12. A sentence consisting of two or more principal propositions, either alone or in connection with one or more subordinate propositions, is called a compound sentence; as,

Spīrant venti et cădunt fölia, The winds blow, and the leaves fall.

13. The propositions composing a complex or a compound sentence are called its members or clauses; the principal proposition is called the leading clause, its subject, the leading subject, and its verb, the leading verb.

SUBJECT.

- § 202. 1. The subject also is either simple, complex, or compound.
- 2. The simple subject, which is also called the grammatical subject, is either a noun or some word standing for a noun; as,

Aves volant, Birds fly. Tu lėgis, Thou readest. A est vocālis, A is a vowel. Mentīri est turpe, To lie is base.

3. The complex subject, called also the logical subject, consists of the simple subject with its modifications; as,

Conscientia bene actae vitae est jūcundissima, The consciousness of a well spent ''je is very pleasant. Here conscientia is the grammatical, and conscientia bene actae vitae the comp ex, subject.

4. The compound subject consists of two or more simple or complex subjects to which a single predicate belongs; as,

Lūna et stellæ fulgēbant, The moon and stars were shining. Grammätice ac mūsicæ juncte fuërunt, Grammar and music were united. Semper honos nomenque tunu haudesque manebunt.

REMARK. Words are said to modify or limit other words, when hey serve to explain, describe, define, enlarge, restrict, or otherwise qualify their meaning.

5. Every sentence must contain a subject and a predicate, called its *principal* or *essential* parts: any sentence may also receive additions to these, called its *subordinate* parts.

Complex or Modified Subject.

- The complex subject is formed by adding other words to the simple subject. All additions to the subject, like the subject itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.
 - I. Simple additions. The subject may be modified by adding :-
 - 1. A single word:
 - (1.) A noun in the same case; as,

Nos consules d'samus, We consuls are remiss. Mucius augur multa narravit, Mucius the augur related many things.

(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case, modifying or limiting the subject; as,

Amor multitudinis commovetur, The love of the multitude is excited. Cura mel, Care for me. Viribus usus, Need of strength.

(3.) An adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle; as,

Fügit invida ætas, Envious time flies. Mea måter est benigna. Ducit agmina Penthesilea fürens. Litera scripta månet.

2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as,

Sopor in grāmine. Oppida sine præsidio. Receptio ad te.

3. A dependent adjective clause introduced by qui, quālis, quantus, etc.; as,

Lēve fit, quod bēne fertur, ônus, The burden, which is borne well, becomes light. Litéra, quas scripsisti, acceptæ sunt. Ut, quālis (ille) hābēri vellet, tālis esset. Tunta est inter eos, quanta maxima esse potest, mörum distantā.

- II. Complex additions. The subject may be modified :-
- 1. By a word to which other words are added.
- (1.) When the word to which other words are added is a noun or pronoun, it may be modified in any of the ways above mentioned.
 - (2.) When it is an adjective it may be modified :-
 - (a.) By an adverb either simple or modified; as,

Erat exspectātio valde magna. Præsidium non nīmis firmum.

(b.) By a noun in an oblique case; as,

Major piètâte, Superior in piety. Contentionis căpidus, Fond of contention Patri similis, Like his father. Nădus membra. Jăvênes patre digni.

- (c.) By an infinitive, a gerund, or a supine; as,
- Insuētus vinci, Not accustomed to be conquered. Vēnandi stādiosus. Fond of huntino. Mirābile dictu, Wonderful to tell.
- (d.) By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Rudis in republica, Unskilled in civil affairs. Ab equitatu firmus. Celer in pugnam. Prömus ad fidem.
 - (e.) By a subordinate clause; as,
- Mělior est certa paz, quam spērāta victōria, A certain peace is better them an expected victory. Dubius sum, quid făciam.
- (3.) When it is a participle, it may be modified like a verb. See § 203.
- 2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case to which other words are added; as,
- De victoria Cæsaris fāma perfertur, A report concerning Cæsar's victory is brought.
- REMARK 1. As the case following the preposition is that of a noun or pronoun, it may be modified like the subject in any of the foregoing ways.
- REM. 2. The preposition itself may be modified by an adverb, or by a noun or adjective in an oblique case; as,
- Longe ultra, Far beyond. Multo ante noctem, Long before night. Sexennio post Veios captos, Six years after the capture of Veii.
- 3. By a subordinate clause, to whose subject or predicate other words are added.
- REMARK. These additions may be of the same form as those added to the principal subject or predicate of the sentence.
 - III. Compound additions. The subject may be modified:-
- 1. By two or more nouns in the same case as the subject, connected by a coördinate conjunction; as,
 - Consules, Brutus et Collatinus, The consuls, Brutus and Collatinus.
- 2. By two or more oblique cases of a noun or pronoun connected coördinately; as,
 - Vitæque něcisque pôtestas. Pěriculorum et lăborum incitamentum.
- 3. By two or more adjectives, adjective pronouns, or participles, connected coordinately; as,
 - Grave bellum perdiuturnumque. Animi teneri atque molles.
 - By two or more adjective clauses connected coördinately; as, Et qui fēcēre, et qui facta ăliōrum scripsēre, multi laudantur. Sall.
- 5. By two or more of the preceding modifications connected coordinately; as,
 - Genus hominum agreste, sine legibus, sine imperio, liberum, atque solutum.
- Rem. 1. A modified grammatical subject, considered as one complex idea, may itself be modified; as,
- Omnia tua consilia, All thy counsels. Here omnia modifies, not consilia, but the complex idea expressed by tua consilia. So Triginta naves longa. Præpæens finitimus rez.

REM. 2. An infinitive, with the words connected with it, may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

Virtus est vitium fugere, To shun vice is a virtue.

REM. 3. A clause, or any member consisting of two or more clauses, may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

E calo descendit 'Nosce te ipsum.' Æquum est, ut hoc făcies.

REM. 4. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a proposition is put in the nominative, when the verb of the predicate is a finite verb; but when the verb is in the infinitive, the subject is put in the accusative.

Note 1. A verb in any mood, except the infinitive, is called a finite verb.

NOTE 2. In the following pages, when the term subject or predicate is used alone, the grammatical subject or predicate is intended.

PREDICATE.

- § 203. 1. The predicate, like the subject, is either simple, complex, or compound.
- 2. The simple predicate, which is also called the *grammatical* predicate, is either a single finite verb, or the copula *sum* with a noun, adjective, and rarely with an adverb; as,

Sol lucet, The sun shines. Multa ănimālia rēpunt, Many animals creep Brēvis est võ opus, Plensure is brief Europa est pēninsula, Europe is a peninsula. Rectissime sunt apud te omnia.

3. The complex predicate, called also the logical predicate, consists of the simple predicate with its modifications; as,

Scipio fūdit Annibālis cōpias, Scipio routed the forces of Hannibal. Here fulli is the grammatical, and fulli Annibālis cōpias the logical predicate.— So, Rōmālus Rōmānæ conditor urbis fuit.

 The compound predicate consists of two or more simple or complex predicates belonging to the same subject; as,

Problitas laudātur et alget, Honesty is praised and neglected. Lēti vis rāpuit, reteque gentes. Lucius Cutilma fuit magnā vi et animi et corporis, sed ingenio malo pravoque.

Complex or Modified Prearcate.

- The complex predicate is formed by adding other words to the simple predicate. All additions to the predicate, like the predicate itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.
 - I. Simple additions. The predicate may be modified by adding:-

1. A single word ;-

(1.) A noun or adjective in the same case as the subject. This cours after certain neuter verbs and passive verbs of naming, calling, etc. (See § 210, R. 3.); as,

Servus fit libertinus, The slave becomes a freedman. Servius Tullius cex est déclàratus. Aristides justus est appellatus. Încêdo regina.

(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case; as,

Spe vivimus, We live by hope Deus regit mundum, God rules the world.

(3.) An adverb either simple or modified; as,

Sæpe vēnit, He came often. Festina lente, Hasten slowly. Lītēræ facile dis cuntur. Chrēmes nimis graviter crūciat ādôlescentūlum.

(4.) An infinitive mood; as,

Căpit discere, He desires to learn. Audeo dicere. Ver esse caperat.

 A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Vēnit ad urbem, He came to the city.

3. A dependent substantive or adverbial clause; as,

Véreor ne repréhendar, I fear that I shall be blamed. Zenonem, quum Athénis assem, audiébam fréquenter. Fác cögites.

II. Complex additions. The predicate may be modified:—

1. By a word to which other words are added.

REMARK. These words are the same as in the corresponding cases of complex additions to the subject. See § 202, II.

- 2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case, to which other words are added. See complex additions to the subject, § 202.
- 3. By a subordinate clause, to whose subject or predicate other words are added. See complex subject, § 202, Π , 3.
- REM. 2. Each of the words constituting a proposition may be modified by two or more additions not dependent on, nor connected with each other, and consisting either of single words, phrases, or dependent clauses; as, Agamemnonis belli gloria. Paternum odium erga Romanos. Mens sibi conscia recti. Mea maxime interest, te valiere. Ago tibi gratius. Meipsum inertiæ condemno. Eos hoc môneo. In quo te accaso. Mônet eun, ut suspiciones vitet.
- III. Compound additions. 1. The predicate may be modified by two or more words, phrases, or clauses, joined together by a coördinate conjunction. See Compound additions to the subject, § 202, III
- The leading verb is usually either in the indicative or imperative mood, but sometimes in the subjunctive or the historical infinitive.
- The members of a compound sentence are connected by coördinate conjunctions; those of a complex sentence by some relative word, or by a subordinate conjunction.
- Instead of a dependent clause connected by a conjunction, a norm and participle, or two nouns, sometimes stand as an abridged proposition: as,
- Bello confecto discessit, i. e. quum bellum confectum esset, discessit, The war being finished, or when the war was finished, he departed. Nil despérandum, Tencro dûce.
 - 5. Az infinitive may be modified like the verb of a predicate.
- Agreement is the correspondence of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person.
- A word is said to govern another, when it requires it to be put in a certain case or mood.
- A word is said to depend on another, when its case, gender number, mood, tense, or person, is determined by that word.
- 9. A word is said to follow another, when it depends upon it in construction, whatever may be its position in the sentence.

APPOSITION.

§ 204. A noun, annexed to another noun or to a protoun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case as.

Urbs Roma, The city Rome. Nos consules, We consuls. So Apud Herodotum, patrem historiae, sunt innumerabiles fabulae, In Herodotus, the father of history,

etc. Cic. Lapides silices, flint stones. Liv. Ante ma consulem, Before I was consul. Fons cui nomen Arethusa est. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) A noun, thus annexed to another, is said to be in apposition to it. It is generally added for the sake of explanation, identification, or description; sometimes it denotes character or purpose; as, Ejus Júgo excultem me adjunxi, I added myself, as a companion of his flight; and sometimes the time, cause, reason, etc., of an action; as, Alexander puer, Alexander when a

boy. Cuto series eribère historiam instituit. Suet.

(b.) A noun in apposition, like an adjective used as an epithet, (§ 205, N. 2,)
assumes the attribute denoted by it as belonging to the noun which it limits,
while the predicate-nominative affirms it. Hence both nouns belong to the
same part of the sentence, whether subject or predicate. In cases of apposi-

tion, there seems to be an ellipsis of the ancient participle ens, being; qui est, who is; qui vocātur, who is called; or the like.

Rem. 2. If the annexed noun has a form of the same gender as the other noun, it takes that form; as, Usus magister egrégius. Plin. Philosophia magistra vite. Cio. If the annexed noun is of the common gender, the adjective qualifying it takes the gender of the preceding noun; as, Laurus fidissima custos.

REM. 3. The annexed noun sometimes differs from the other in gender or in number; as, Duo fulmina belli, Scipidalas, cladem Libys. Virg. Mitgleine, urbs mobilis. Cic. Tullibla, delicite nostra. Id.;—and sometimes in both; as, Nate, meas vires. Virg. Nos, animae viles, inhumata infletique turba. Id.

REM. 4. The substantive pronoun is sometimes omitted before the word in apposition to it; as, Consul dixi, scil. égo; (1) the consul said. And instead of the substantive pronoun, a possessive adjective pronoun is sometimes used; as, Tua domus, talls viri. Cic. See § 211, R. 3, (6.)

- REM. 5. A noun may be in apposition to two or more nouns, and, in such case, is usually put in the plural; as, *M. Antonius, C. Cussius*, tribune of the people. Cass. *Publius et Servius Sullæ*, Servi filii. Sall. Tib. et Gaius Gracchi. Cic. Orationes L. et C. Aureliorum Crestarum Id. But sometimes in the singular; as, Ch. et L. Domitius. Cic.
- (1.) So when the nouns are connected by cum, the annexed noun taking the case of the former; as, Dicearchum vēro cum Aristoxéno, doctos sane homlines, omitămus. Cic.
- 3.) If the nouns are proper names of different genders, a masculine noun is an exed rather than a feminine, when both forms exist; as, Ad Ptolemorum Cleopatramque reges legăti missi sunt. Liv.
- REM. 6. The annexed noun is sometimes in the genitive; as, Urbem Patüvl Leavit, The city of Patavium. Virg. Plurimus Eridani annis. Id. Arberne fici nunquem vidérat. Cic. In appilo Antiochiae. Id. Rupili et Persi par. Hor.
- REM. 7. The name of a town in the genitive occurs with an ablative in apposition to it: as, *Orrathi Achaiæ urbe; At Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac. *Antiochiæ, celébri urbe. Cic. See § 221, Note, and § 254, Rem. 3.
- REM. 8. (a.) A proper name, after nomen or cognomen, with a verb followed by a dative, is put in apposition either to nomen, etc., or to the dative, the latter by a species of attraction; as, Fons, cui nomen Arcthusa est. Cic. Stirps virilis, cui Ascanium parentes dixere nomen. Liv. Nomen Arctiro est mini, I have the

name Arcturus. Plaut. Cui nunc cognomen Iūlo additur. Virg. Cui Igerio inditum nomen. Liv.—(b.) The name may also be put in the genitive; as, Nomen Mercūrii est mihi. Plant. Q. Metellus, cui Macedonici nomen inditum èrat. Vell. Cf. R. 6.—(c.) In Illa ætas, cui fectinus Aurea nomen, Ov. Met. 15, 96, Aurea is used as an indeclinable noun, instead of Auream (scil. ætātem); or Aureæ dat. (scil. ætātem)

REM. 9. A clause may supply the place of one of the nouns; as, Cogitet oratorem institui—rem ardaam, Let him reflect that an orator is training—a difficult thing. Quint.—So also a neuter adjective used substantively; as, Triste liques stabilis, The wolf, a sad thing to the folds. Virg. Vărium et mutabile semper femina. Id.

REM. 10. Sometimes the former noun denotes a whole, and its parts are expressed by nouns in apposition to it; as, Onerāriæ, pars maxima ad Ægimūrum,—aliæ adversus urbem ipsum delātæ sunt. The ships of burden were carried, the greatest part, to Ægimurus,—others opposite to the city itself. Liv. Pictores et porta sunu quisque byns a vulgo considerāri vult. Cic. In the construction of the ablative absolute, quisque remains in the nominative, though the word to which it is in apposition is in the ablative; as, Multis sibi quisque impērium petentibus. Sall. J. 18. So also, in Liv. 26, 29, quisque remains in the nominative although the word to which it is in apposition is in the accusative with the infinitive.

To this rule may be subjoined that which relates to the agreement of interrogative and responsive words.

REM. 11. The principal noun or pronoun in the answer to a question, must be in the same case as the corresponding interrogative word; as,

Quis hērus est tībi? Amphitruo, scil. est. Who is your master? Amphitruo (is.) Plaut. Quid quæris? Librum, scil. quæro. What are you looking for? A book. Quōtā hōrā venisti? Sextā. At what hour did you come? At the sixth.

Note 1. Instead of the genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding possessive pronoun is often used, agreeing with its noun; as, Cūjus est liber? Meus, (not Mei.) (See § 211, Rem. 3, (b.) So cūjum for genitive cūjus? Cūjum pēcus? an Melibai? Non; vērum Ægōnis. Virg.

Note 2. Sometimes the rules of syntax require the responsive to be in a different case from that of the interrogative; as, Quanti emisti? Viginti minis, Damnatusme & furti? I mo allo crimine. See & 121. R. 1, and 217. R. 2.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 205. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, agree with their nouns, in gender, number, and case; as,

Bönus vir, A good man. Benigna mäter, A kind mother. Triste bellum, A sad war. Spe amissä, Hope being lost.

Bŏnos viros, Good men. Vānæ lēges, Useless laws. Minācia verba, Threatening words. Hæc res, This thing.

So, Mea māter est benigna. Hæc lēges vānæ sunt.

Nors 1. Adjectives, according to their meaning (§ 104), are divided into two classes—qualifying and limiting—the former denoting some property or quality of a noun; as, a wise man, lead is heavy; the latter defining or restricting its meaning; as, this man, ten cities. To the former class belong such adjectives as done a property or quality, including all participles and participle adjectives; to the latter, the adjective pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and numerals.

NOTE 2. An adjective, participle, or pronoun, may either be used as an epithet to modify a noun, or, with the copula sum, may constitute a predicate in the former case the quality is assumed, in the latter it is asserted. In both cases, the rule for their agreement is, in general, the same. See § 210, R. 1.

NOTE 3. Any word or combination of words added to a noun to modify or limit its meaning is of the nature of an adjective.

Norz 4. In the following remarks, the word adjective is to be considered as including participles, either alone or combined with the auxiliary sum, and also adjective pronous, unless the contrary is intimated.

REMARK 1. An adjective agrees also with a substantive pronoun, taking its gender from that of the noun for which the pronoun stands; as, Ipse capellas agger ágo, seil égo, Melibeaus; Virg. Fortunate puer, tu nunc eris alter ab illo. Id. Ut se totum et tradèret. Nep. O me misērum (spoken by a man), misērum me kspoken by a woman). So salvi sümus, salve sümus, soil: nos, masculine or teminine.—In general propositions which include both sexes, the pronouns are considered masculine; as, Nos fruiges consümere nāti. Hor.

REM. 2. An adjective may belong to each of two or more nouns, and in such case is put in the plural. If the nouns are of the same gender, the adjective agrees with them in gender, as well as in number; as,

Lúpus et agnus siti compulsi, A wolf and a lamb, constrained by thirst. Phæd Sicilia Sardi năque amissæ. Liv.

When the nouns are of different genders,

(1.) If they denote living things, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine; as,

Păter mihi et mater mortui sunt, My father and mother are dead. Ter. So also uterque in the singular. Procumbit uterque, scil. Deucâtion et Pyrrha. Ovid.

(2.) If they denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter; as,

His genus, œtas, eloquentia prope æqualia fuere, Their family, age, and eloquence, were nearly equal. Sall. Regna, imperia, aobilitates, honores, divitiæ in cosu sita sunt. Cic. Huic bella, rapinæ, discordia civilis, grāta fuere. Sall. Anima atque animus, quamvis integra recens in corpus cunt. Lucr.

Note. When nouns denoting things without life are of the same gender (either masculine or ferminne), but of different numbers, the adjective is sometimes neuter; as, Creso et vita et patrimonii partes, et urbs Barrec concessa sunt. Just.; sometimes also when both nouns are in the singular number; as, Plerosque velocitas et régio hostibus ignāra tutāta sunt. Sall. Now atque præda remorata sunt. Id.

(3.) If one of the nouns denotes an animate, and another an inauimate thing, the adjective is sometimes neuter, and sometimes takes the gender of that which has life; as,

Numidæ atque signa militäria obscurāti sunt, The Numidians and the military standards were concealed. Sall. Romāni rēgem regnunque Macedôniæ sua futūra sciunt. Liv. Jāne, fāc æternos pācem pacisque ministros. Ovid.

Exc. to Rem. 2. The adjective often agrees with the nearest noun, and is understood with the rest; as,

Süciis et rēge rēcepto, Our com anions and king having been recovered. Virg. Agri omnes et māria. Cic. Cognitum est sālūtem, lībēros, fāmam, for līnas ease cānssimas. Cic.

Note. A noun in the singular, followed by an ablative with cum, has sometimes a plural adjective, the gender being the same as if the nouns were connected by et; as, Filiam cum filio accitos. Liv. Ilia cum Lauso de Nauntiere sati. Ovid. Filium Alexandri cum matre in arcem custodiendos mittil. Just.

Rem. 3. (1.) An adjective qualifying a collective noun is often put in the plural, taking the gender of the individuals which the noun denotes: as.

Pars certure părăti, A part, prepared to contend. Virg. Pars per agrad dilapsi. ... surm quisque spem exséquentes. Liv. Supplex turba érant sine judice tăti. Ovid. This construction always occurs when the collective noun is the subject of a plural verb. See § 209, R. 11.

• 2.) Sometimes, though rarely, an adjective in the singular takes the gendular the individuals; as, Pars arduns altis pulveralentus equis furit. Virg. Pars and dicum-fractus morbo. Ovid.

(3.) Sometimes other nouns, which only in a figurative sense denote human beings, have by synésis an adjective of a different gender from their own, referring to the words which they include; as, Latium Copuaque agro mulcitat Latium and Capna were deprived of their land. Liv. Copita conjurationis virgis cessi ac sécari percussi sunt. Id. Auxilia irati. Id. So after millia; as, Duo millia Tyriorum, cráctbus affixi. Curt. Cf. § 223, 3, (4.)

REM. 4. Two adjectives in the singular are sometimes joined to a plural noun; as, Mirira Tyrrhēnum atque Adriāticum, The Tuscan and Adriatic seas. Liv. Cam légionibus sécundā et tertiā. Liv. Crec portas Collmam Esquiinamque. Id. But sometimes the noun is in the singular; as, Inter Esquilaum Collmangue portam. Id. Légio Martia et quarta. In comic writers, an adjective or participle in the singular is sometimes used with a plural pronoun; as, Nobis presente. Plant. Absente môbis. Ter.

REM. 5. A participle which should regularly agree with the subject of a proposition, when placed after the noun of the predicate, (a) sometimes takes the gender and number of the latter; as, Non omnis error stallitia est dicenda, Nct every error is to be called folly. Gic. Gens universa Viniti appelläti. Liv. (b.) Sometimes also it agrees with a noun following the subject and in apposition to it; as, Cirinthum, patres restri, tötius Graciae lümen, exstinctum esse völuèraut. Cic.; or (c) with the noun of a subordinate sentence; as, Illorum urbem ut propugnācilum oppositum esse barbaris. Nep.

REM. 6. When the subject of an infinitive is omitted after a dative of the same signification, (§ 233, R. 1,) an adjective in the predicate, belonging to that subject, is sometimes put in the dative; as, Mikh negligenti esse non head, i. e. me negligentem esse mikh non licuit. Cic. Da mikh justo sanctōque videri. Hor. A noun is sometimes expressed with the adjective; as, Vöbis hēcesse es fortibus esse viris. Liv. But the adjective often agrees with the omitted subject; as, Expēdit bōnas esse vöbis, scil. vos. Ter. Si civi Rōmāno licet esse Gādītānum. Cic.

REM. 7. (1.) An adjective is often used alone, especially in the plural, the noun, with which it agrees, being understood; as,

Böni sunt rāvi, seil. hömīnes, Good (men) are rare. Cesar suos misit. seil. mīltes, Cæsar sent his (soldiers). Dextra, seil. mānus, The right (hande Inpleatur pinquis ferīne, seil. earnis. Virg. Hiberna, seil. castra. Altum seil. māre. Quartāna, seil. febris. Immortāles, seil. Dii. Lucr. Amantium, seil. tômisum. Ter. Illum indignanti smilem, smillemque mīnanti spētēres, seil. hīmīn. Virg. Tībi prīnnes dē fēro, seil. partes. Cic. Respēce præteritum, seil. tempos, which is often omitum lītēris, seil. amācorum. Cic. So patrial adjectives; as, Missi ad Parthum Armēniumque lēgāt seil. rēgem. In Tuscūlāno, seil veredic.

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NOTE 1. The noun to be supplied with masculine adjectives is commonly tomines, but when they are posessives, it is oftener amici, milites, cives, or pro pinqui.

Note 2. The nonu to be supplied is often contained in a preceding clause.

(2.) An adjective in the neuter gender, without a noun, is often used substantively, where, in English, the word thing or things is to be supplied; as,

Bonum, a good thing; mālum, a bad thing, or, an evil. So honestum, vērum, turpe; and in the plural, bona, mala, turpia, levia, calestia, etc. Labor omnia

vincit, Labor overcomes all things. Virg.

Note 1. The Latins generally preferred adding res to an adjective, to using its neuter as a substantive. But sometimes, when res is used, an adjective or pronoun referring to it is put in the neuter instead of the feminine; as, Earum rerum utrumque. Cic. Humanarum rerum fortuna pleraque regit. Sall. Illud te rogo, semptui ne percas ulla in re, quod ad raletudinem opus sit. Cic. Omnium rerum mors est extrenium. Cic.

Note 2. Instead of thing or things, other words may sometimes be supplied, as the sense requires. With a preposition, neuter adjectives form adverbial phruses; us, A primo, At first. Plant. Per mātua, Mutually. Virg. In primis, In the first place. Ad hoc, or Ad hec, Morcover, besides.

(3.) Adjectives used substantively often have other adjectives agreeing with them; as, Alia omnia, All other (things.) Plin. Iniquissumi mei, My greatest enemies. Familiaris meus. Cie. Iniquus noster. Id. Justa funebria. Liv. Jóvis omnia plēna. scil. sunt. Virg.

REM. 8. (a.) Imperatives, infinitives, adverbs, clauses, and words considered merely as such, may be used substantively, and take a neuter adjective in the singular number; as, Suprēmum vale dizit, He pronounced a last farewell.
Ovid. Dulee et decorum est pro patriā mort. Hor. Velle suum cuique est. Pers.
Cras istud quando vēnit? Mart. J. Rēdībo actūtum. A. Id actūtum diu est. Plaut. Excepto quod non simul esses, cetera letus. Hor. (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the adjective, as in Greek, is sometimes in the neuter plural; as, Ut Æneas pelágo jactetur-nota tibi. Virg.

REM. 9. (a.) Adjectives and adjective pronouns, instead of agreeing with their nouns, are sometimes put in the neuter gender, with a partitive signification, and their nouns in the genitive; as, Multum temporis, for multum tempus; much time. Id rei, for ea res; that thing. So, plus eloquentia, the other form not being admissible with plus. (See § 110, (b.) Neuter adjectives are used in like manner in the plural; as, Vāna rērum, for vānæ res. Hor. Plērāque hūmā-nārum rērum. Sall. Cf. § 212, R. 3, N. 4. But in some such examples, the adjective seems to be used substantively, according to Rem. 7, (2); as, Acuta Tellūris operta. Virg. Summa pectoris.

Note. The adjectives thus used partitively in the singular, for the most part, signify quantity. See § 212, Rem. 3, Note 1.

REM. 10. A neuter adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the nominative or accusative, both singular and plural; as, Dulce ridentem Lalagen am 100, dulce lóquentem. Hor. Magnum stridens. Virg. Arma horrendum sónnire. Id. Multa deos rénérâti sunt. Cic. Hódie aut summum cras. Id. See § 192, II. 4, (b.)

Rem. 11. (a.) A noun is sometimes used as an adjective; as, Nemo miles Romanus, No Roman soldier. Liv. Nemo fére adblescens. Cic. Vir nemo bonus. Id. Cf. § 207, R. 31, (c.) Tiberim accolis fluvis orbūtum. Tae. Incola turba. Ovid. The poets use in this manner the Greek patronymics in as and is; as, Pelius hasta. Ovid. Laurus Parnāsis. Id. Ursa Libystis. Virg. Cf. also 129, 8.

(b.) An adverb is also sometimes used as an adjective; as, Něque inim ignāri sămus ante milīrum· i. e. antiquōrum or prætéritörum. Virg. Nunc hominum mores Plau:

REM. 12. (a.) An adjective or adjective pronoun, used partiti. Aly, stands alone, and commonly takes the gender of the genitive plural, which depends upon it; but when it is preceded by a noun of a different gender, to which it refers, it usually takes that gender, but sometimes that of the genitive; as Elphanto belluarum nulls est pradentior, No beast is wiser than the elephant. Cic. Indus, qui est omnium finnium maximus. Cic. Velòcissimum omnium atmadium est delphants. Plin. See § 12, Ren. 2.—(b.) So also with de, ex. in, apud. inter, etc., with the ablutive or accusative instead of the partitive genitive. See § 212, R. 2, N. 4.

[5.] When a collective noun follows in the genitive singular, (§ 212, R. 2.) the

(2.) When a collective noun follows in the genitive singular, (§ 212, R. 2.) the adjective takes the gender of the individuals which compose it; as, Vir fortissimus nostrue civilātis, The bravest man of our state. Cic. Maximus stripe.

Liv.

REM. 13. (a) When a possessive pronoun or adjective is used instead of the genitive of its primitive or of its corresponding noun (see § 211, R. 3, (b) and (c.) and R. 4), an adjective agreeing with that genitive is sometimes joined with such possessive; as, Solius meum percaium corrigi non pôtest, The fault of me alone cannot be corrected. Cic. Noster duörum ceretus. Liv. Tuum ipsius stūdium. Cic. Pugna Romāna stābilis suo pondēre incumbentium in hostem. Liv.

(b.) Sometimes a noun in the genitive is expressed, in apposition to the substantive pronoun for which the possessive stands; as, Pectus tuum, hominis

simplicis. Cic.

Rem. 14. An adjective, properly belonging to the genitive, is sometimes made to agree with the noun on which the genitive depends, and vice versal; as, £ddf-icātionis true constlium for tunn, Your design of building. Cic. Accisantes violati hospitii fædus, tor violatum. Liv. Ad majora initia rérum ducentibus fâtis, for mājorum. Id. Iis nominibus civitātum, quibus ex civitātibus, etc., for eirum civitātum. Cies.

Rem. 15. (a.) An adjective agreeing with a noun is sometimes used, instead of an adverb qualifying a verb, especially in poetry; as, Ecce vinit Teliamon properus, Lo, Telamon comes in haste. Ovid. Lett pācem āgitābāmus, for lete. Sall. Ænēas se mātnitnus āgībāt, for māne. Virg. Nec lūpus grēgībus noctur-

nus ŏbambŭlat, i. e. by night. Id.

(b.) So sullus is used for nor, as, Mēmini tāmetsi nullus môneas. Though you do not suggest it. Ter. Sextus ab armis nullus discédil. Cic. Prior, primus, princeps, prôpior, procinus, silas, inus, ultimus, malus, tōtus, and some others, are used instead of their neuters, adverbially; as, Priori Icimo augūrium crinises fertur. Liv. Hispānia postrēma omnium prôeniciarum perdomata est Liv. Secevola sõlos nõcem menses Asico prerfuit, Only nine months. Cic. Unum hoc dico, This only I say, Id. This is sometimes done, for want of an adverb of appropriate meaning; as, Prônus cécidit. Ovid. Frèquentes convêntatus. Sall.

(c.) In such expressions, tu, in the nominative, sometimes takes an adjective in the vocative, and vice versā; as, Sic rēnias hödierne. Tibull. Salve,

prīmus omnium parens patriæ appellate. Plin.

REM. 16. (a.) A noun is often qualified by two or more adjectives; and semetimes the complex idea, formed by a noun with one or more adjectives, is itself qualified by other adjectives, which agree in gender, etc. with the noun.

(b.) When several adjectives, each independently of the other, qualify a noun, if they precede it, they are almost always connected by one or more conjunctions; as, Multa et varia et copiosa oratione. Cic. If they follow it, the conjunction is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted; as, Vir alue et excellens. Cic. Actio, varia, collemens, plana ceritaits. Id.

(c.) But when one of the adjectives qualifies the noun, and another the complex idea formed by the first with the noun, the conjunction is always mitted; as, Périculösissimum civile bellum, A most dangerous civil war. Cic. Mālam demesticam disciplinam. Id. So with three or more adjectives; Externos multos ckives tivos nöminārem. Cic. Cf. § 202, III., R. 1.

REM. 17. The first part, last part, middle part, etc., of any place or time are generally expressed in Latin by the adjectives primus, medius, ultimus, extrēmus, intimus, infimus, imus, summus, suprēmus reliquus, and cētera; as,

Média nox, The middle of the night. Summa arbor, The top of a tree. Suprimos montes, The summits of the mountains. But these adjectives frequently occur without this signification; as, Ab extrêmo complexu, From the last embrace. Cic. Infimo boco natus, Of the lowest rank. Id.

REM. 18. The participle of the compound tenses of verbs, used impersonally in the passive voice, is neuter; as, Ventum est. Cic. Itum est in viscèra terra Ovid. Scribendum est mihi. See § 184, 2 and 3.

RELATIVES.

§ 206. Rem. 19. (a.) Relatives agree with their anticed dents in gender, number, and person, but their case depends on the construction of the clause to which they belong; as,

Puer qui légit, The boy who reads. Ædificium quod exstruxit, The house which he built. Litêre quas dédi, The letter which I gave. Non sum qualis èram, I am not such as I was. Hor. So Deus chijus münére vivinus, cui nullus est similis, quem colimus, a quo facta sunt omnia, est eterrus. Addictus Hermipo, et ab hoc ductus est. Aquilo, quantus franții tilees. Hor.

NOTE 1. This rule includes all adjectives and adjective pronouns which relate to a noun in a preceding clause. Its more common application, however, is to the construction of the demonstrative pronouns and the relative qui.

Note 2. When a pronoun refers to the mere words of a sentence, it is said to be used logically. Qui and is are so used, and sometimes also hic and ille.

(b.) The relative may be considered as placed between two cases of the same noun, either expressed or understood, with the former of which it agrees in gender, number, and person, and with the latter in gender, number, and case.

(1.) Sometimes both nouns are expressed; as,

Erant omnino duo itinera, quibus itineribus domo exire possent, There were only two roates, by which roates they could leave home. Case. Oradelissimo bello, quidle bellum nulla unquam burbāria gessit. Cic. But it is most frequent with the word dies; as, Fore in armis certo die, qui dies faturus ferat, etc. Cic. The repetition of the substantive is necessary, when, for any reason, it becomes doubtful to which of two or more preceding substantives the relative refers.

(2.) Usually the antecedent noun only is expressed; as,

Animum rége, qui, nisi paret, impérat, Govern your passions, which rule nuless they obey. Hor. Tante multitudinis, quantum câpit urbs uostra, concursus est ad me factus. Cic. Quot câpitum vivunt, tôtidem stúdiorum millia. Hor.

(3.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, especially when the relative clause, as is frequently the ease, precedes that of the antecedent; as,

Quibus de rebus ad m- scripsisti, coran ridibinus; seil. de ribus, In regard to the things of which you wrote to me, we will consider when we meet. Cie. is quen prizum igress suit locum, Troja võedur; seil, locus. Liv. Quantā vi expétunt, 'antā de' indunt. Qualesque visus êram vidisse viros, ex ordine tāles aspicio, Ovis.

- (a.) The place of the antecedent is sometimes supplied by a demonstrative pronoun; a.i, Ad quas res aptissmi ėrimus, in iis polissimum chiborabimus. Cic. But the demonstrative is often omitted when its case is the same as that of the relative, and not unfrequently, also, when the cases are different. When the relative clause precedes that of the antecedent, is is expressed only for the sake of emphasis. Hence we find such sentences as, Mazinum ornāmentum âmicita tollut, qui ex eā tollut vērēcundina. Cic. Terra quad accepit, numquam sine sāsūrā redūlā. Id.—The demonstrative adjectives and adverbs are in like manner often omitted before their corresponding relatives; tālis before qualis, tamus bofore quantas, inde before unde, tāl before ūbi, etc.
- (b.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, even when the relative rlause does not precede; as, Quis non malârum quas âmor cûras hâbet, hac interchliestur? Hor.
- (4.) Sometimes neither noun is expressed; this happens especially when the antecedent is designedly left indefinite, or when it is a substantive pronoun; as,
- Qui bêne lituit, bêne rixit, soil. hômo, (He) who has well escaped notice, has lived well. Ovid. Sunt quos curricillo pulcêrem Olympicum collégises juat, soil. hômines, There are whom it delights, i. e. Some delight. Hor. Non hâbeo quod te accisem, soil. id propter quod. Cic. Non solum sopiens vidêris, qui hinc absis, sed êtum beatus, soil. tu. Cic.
- (5.) The relative is sometimes either entirely omitted; as, Urbs antiqua fuir, Tyrin ténuère côlon, seil quam or erm, There was an ancient city (which) Tyrian colonists possessed, Virg; or, if once expressed, is afterwards omitted even when, if supplied, its case would be different; as, Bocchus cum peditibus, quos filus ejus adduxerat, neque in priore pugnă adfuerant, Rômânos invadunt, for et qui non în priore, etc. Sall.
- (6.) (a.) The relative sometimes takes the case of the antecedent, instead of its own proper case; as, Quum scribas et âliquid ăgas côrum, quorum consuest, for quae. Cic. Raptim quibus quisque pôtêrat clâtis, exibant, for iis, quae quisque efferre pôtêrat, clâtis. Liv.
- (b) The antecedent likewise sometimes takes the case of the relative, the substantive either preceding or following the pronoun; as, Urbem quam statue vestra est, for urbs. Virg. Enrachum quem dedist nobis, quas turbus dedit! for Eunächus. Ter. Naucritem quem concénire volvi, in navi nou èrat. Plaut. Aque alli, quorum concenir prisca viroum est, for aque alli viri, quòrum est. Hor. Illi, scripta quibus concenir prisca viris est, for illi vi-i, quibus. Id. Quos puèros maisram, pissiolum mili attalierant. Cic.

These constructions are said to occur by attraction.

- (7.) (a.) An adjective, which properly belongs to the antecedent, is some-placed in the relative clause, and agrees with the relative; as, Interfocs, quos inconditos jūciunt, for jūcos inconditos, quos, etc. Amidst the rudo jests which they utter. Liv. Verbis, que magna volunt. Virg. Calbre, quem nultum kābet. Cic.
- (b.) This is the common position of the adjective, when it is a numeral, a comparative, or a superlative; as, Nocte quam in terris ultimam ēgit. The last light, which he spent upon earth. Excilippins, qui printus vulnus obligāvisse divisar. Cic. Consiliis pāre, quae nune pulcherrima Nautes dat sēnior, Listen to the excellent advice, which, etc. Virg. Some instances occur in which an adjective belonging to the relative clause, is placed in that of the antecedent; as, Quam vēnissent ad vāda Volaterrāna, quæ nominantur, Which are called Volaterran. Cic.
- (8.) When to the relative or demonstrative is joined a noun explanatory of its antecedent, but of a different gender or number, the plative or demonstrative usually agrees with that noun; as,

Santônes non longe a Tôlôsātium finibus absunt, quæ cīvītas est in próxinciā the Santônes are not far distant from the borders of the Tolosates, which sate is in the province. Cæs. Ante contitia, quod tempus haud longe ābērat. Sall. Rômæ fanum Diāne pôpāli Lātni cum pôpālo Rômāno fēcirum; en ērat contessio cāpat rīrum Rômum esse; i. e. that thing or that act. Liv. Si omnia fācienda sant, quæ āmēci vēlins, non āmīctiæ tāles, sed conjūrātiones pātundā sunt; i. e. such things or such connections. Cic. So, Ista quidem vis, Surely this is force. Ea ipsi causa belli fait, for id ipsum. Hither also may be referred such explanatory sentences as, Qui meus āmor in te est, Such is my lore for you. Cic.

(9.) If the relative refers to one of two nouns, denoting the same object, but of different genders, it agrees with either; as,

Flümen est Arar quod in Rhödänum influit. Cæs. Ad flümen Oxum pervertun si, qui turbidus semper est. Curt.

(10.) When, in a relative clause containing the verb sum or a verb of naming, esteeming, etc., a predicate-noun occurs of a different gender from the antecedent, the relative commonly agrees with the latter; but when the preceding noun is to be explained and distinguished from another, the relative agrees with the former; as,

Năture vultus quem dixire Chaos, The appearance of nature which they called chaos. Ovid. Genus hōminum quod Hilotes vo.diur. Nep. Animal, quem vocâmus hominem, The animal whom we call man. Cic. Locus in carcère, quod Tullianum appellatur. Sall. Pēcāniārum conquisitio; eos esse bells civilis nervos dictitaus Muciānus. Tuc.

(11.) The relative sometimes agrees with a noun, either equivalent in sense to the antecedent, or only implied in the preceding clause; as,

Abundantia cărum rērum, que mortāles prima pătaut, An abun lance of those things, which mortals esteem most important. Sall. Cf. § 205, R. 7, (2.) N. L. But sometimes when a neuter adjective used substantively has preceded, res with a relative follows; as, Permutta sunt, que dici possunt, qua re intelligătur. Cic. Fătăle monstrum, qua, etc., scil. Cléopătra. Hor. Cf. § 32, 3, (4).

(a.) A relative or demonstrative pronoun, referring to a collective noun, or to a noun which only in a figurative sense denotes a human being, sometimes takes the gender and number of the individuals which the noun implies; as, Equitatum, quos. Sall. Genus, qui prémuntur. Cic. Sénatus—ii. Sall.

(b.) A pronoun in the plural often follows a noun in the singular, referring not only to the noun but to the class of persons or things to which it belongs, as, Democritum omittamus; uthil est enim apud istos, quod, etc. i. e. with Demo-

critus and his followers. Cic. Dionysius négavit se jure illo nigro quod cænæ caput èrat, delectatum. Tum is, qui illa coxerat, etc. ld.

(12.) The antecedent is sometimes implied in a possessive pronoun; as, omnes laudāre fortimas meas, qui nātum tāli ingānio præditum hābērem; seil. mei, All were extolling my fortune, viho, etc. Ter. Id mea minime rēfert, qui mum nātu muzzimus. Id. Nostrum constitue laudendam est, qui nöbuērim, etc. Cie.; cr in a possessive adjective; as, Servili timulu, quos, etc. Cæs.

(13.) (a.) Sometimes the autocodent is a proposition; the relative then is commonly neuter; as, Postrémo, quod difficillimum inter mortales, gloria invidium vicisti, Finally, you have overcome envy with glory, which, among men is most difficult. Sall. Equidem exspectabam jam tuas literas, idque cum multis. Cie.

(6) Iu such instances, id is generally placed before the relative pronoun, referring to the idea in the antecedent clause; as, Sice, id quod constat, Philinis stadiosus audiendi fuit. Cic. Diem consismi colibant, id quod fecerunt. Id.

(c.) Sometimes is, referring to a clause, agrees with a noun following; as, idem velle atque idem nolle, ea demum firma amicitia est. Sall.

- (14.) Quod relating to a preceding statement, and serving the purpose of transition, is often placed at the beginning of a sentence after a period, where it may be translated by 'nay,' 'now,' or 'and.' It is thus use I especially before si, etsi, and nisi; as, Quodsi illine trains profigisses, times: ista tua figga niff and pidetarèten; le. and even if you had fled without taking any thing with you, still, etc. Cic. Verr. 1, 14. Quodsi, 'if then,' is especially used in introducing something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn. Sometimes also it is equivalent to 'although.' Quodsis' signifies 'if then—not'; as, Quodnisi èqo meo adventu illus coñatus diquantitum repressatum, tum multos, etc. Quodetsi is 'nay, even if'; as, Quodicisi ingenis magnit præliti quidam direculi copium sine vittione conséquentur, are timen et dux certior.—Quod is found also before quum, ubi, quia, quoniam, ne and utitaam, where the conjunction alone would seem to be sufficient; as, Quod difinam illum, cipus implio facinore in los misserius projectus sum, eadem luce similatuem vitedem. Sall. It is so used even before a relative in Cic. Phil. 10, 4, fin.—Quod, in such examples, seems to be an accusative, with propler or ad understood.
- (15.) (a.) A relative is always plural, when referring to two or more nouns in the singular. If the nouns are of different genders, the gender of the relative is determined by Kem. 2, page 185; as, Ninus et Nömiramis, qui Bubhjūna comā-abront, Ninus and Semiramis, who had founded Babylon. Vell. Cribro f hadid et thicine, que sibi sumpsirat. Cic. Ex summă letitia utque lasciviă, que did-turne quies priperrat. Sall. Nives et crptiros que ad Chum capta brunt. Liv.

(b.) If the antecedents are of different persons, the relative follows the first person rather than the second or third, and the second rather than the third; as, Tu et pater, qui in concivio èrâtis. Ego et tu, qui êrânus. Cf. § 209, R. 12, (7.)

- (16.) The relative adjectives qual, quantus, qualls, are construed like the relative qui. They have generally, in the antecedent clause, the corresponding demonstrative words, tot, tautus, talks; but these are also often omitted. Frequently also the order of the clauses is reversed, so that the relative clause precedes the demonstrative.
- (17.) Qui, at the beginning of a sentence, is often translated like a demonstrative; as, Quæ quum itu sint, Since these (things) are so. Cic.
- (18.) The relative qui with sum and either a nominative or the ablative of quality, is used in explanatory clauses, instead of pro, in accordance with, or 'according to'; thus, instead of Tā, pro tuā prādentiā, quād optimum factu sit, videbis. Cic., we may say, que tua est prādentia, or, quā prādentiā ēs. So, Vēlis tantumādo, quæ tua virtus, expugnābis. Hor. Quā prādentiā es, nīthī te fāgiet. Cic.
- (19.) A relative clause is sometimes used for the purpose of denoting by circumlocution the person of the agent in a definite but not permanent condition; as, h, qui audiunt, or qui adsant, i. e. the hearers, the persons present. So also, a relative clause is used for the English expression 'above mentioned'; as, Ex libris gnos dixic or quos ante (supra) laudici; and the English 'so called,' or 'what is called,' is expressed by quem, quom, quod vocant, or by qui, que, quod vocatur, dicture, etc.; as, Nec Hermas lues, quos vocant, imponi (Athènis) licebat. Cic. Vestra, que dictur, vita, mors est. Id.
- (20.) Relative and demonstrative adverbs (sec § 191, R. 1), are frequently used instead of relative and demonstrative pronouns with prepositions; as, Is, unde te cudiese dicis, i. e. a quo. Cie. Diettia pand illos sunt, aut úbi illi volunt, i. e. āpuc quos. Sall. Huic ab ādōlescentiā bella intestina, codes, rāpīna, dis cordia civilis, grāta fuere, ibique jācentātem exercuit, i. e. in iis, in these things. Sall.
- (21.) With guam qui and the superlative after tam the verb of the relative clause is sometimes omitted; as, Tum mihi grātum id ērit, quam quod grātissimurs. Cic. Tam rinim sum âmīcus reipūblico, quam qui maxime. Id. Tam sum mitis, quam qui braissimus. Id. So also with ut qui without tam; as, Te sempes sic colour et tuebor, ut quem dibgentissime. Id.

DEMONSTRATIVES.

§ 207. Rem. 20. The oblique cases of the personal protoun of the third person (him, her, etc.) are commonly expressed in prose by the oblique cases of is, ea, id. Hie and ille, however, being more emphatic, take the place of is, ea, id, in tyric poetry, and occasionally in prose also, when particular emphasis is intended. The cases of ipse, ipsa, ipsam, also, are employed for this purpose, when the individuality of the person is to be distinctly expressed. In reflexive sentences, the oblique cases of the pronoun of the third person, are regularly supplied by sai, sbi, se: and it is only when the person of the lealing subject is to be referred to with particular emphasis, that ipse is used instead of sai.

Rem. 21. The demonstrative pronouns, is and ille, are sometimes used, especially with quidem, where a corresponding word in English is unnecessary; as, Sopienius stadium victus id quidem in mostris, sed timen, etc. Cic. O höminem semper illum quidem mihi aptum, nume viru čium suavem. 11. Quem nieque fidels, nodupe ingistranisum, sivique illum mistricovilia, repressid, Whom neither fidelity, nor an oath, nor pity, has restrained. Ter. Is when used for the sake of emphasis seems sometimes in English to be superfluous; as, Male se res habet, quam, qued viritate effici obse, id entatur pécania. Cic.

REM. 22. Sic, it a, id, hoc, illud, are often used redundantly as a preliminary announcement of a subsequent proposition, and are added to the verb on which this proposition depends; as, Sic a mājūrībus suis accipēraut, tanta pāpāli Rōmini esse bēnēficia, ut, etc. Cic. Te illud admoneo, ut quotādie mēdiere, resistendam esse trūcandae. Id. Hoc tāb persuidaes cellus, me nihlā bmisisse, 1 wish

endum esse iricumdia. Id. Hoc tibi persuideas vellim, me nihil omisisse, I wish you to be persuaded of this—that I have omitted nothing. These pleonastic additions have generally no influence on the construction of propositions, but in a few instances they are followed by ut; as, De câjus divendi côpid sã accipimus, ut, etc. Cle. Itá enim difinit, ut perturbatio sú, etc. Id. In the phrase hoc, illud, or id agêre ut, the pronoun is established by custom and is necessary.

See § 273, 1, (a.)

REM. 23. (a) Hic 'this' refers to what is near to the speaker either in place or time, ille 'that' to what is more remote. Hence hic sometimes refers to the speaker limself, and hic homo is then the same as δpo . On this account hic is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person. When reference is made to two things previously mentioned, hic commonly refers to the latter, ille to the former, and the pronouns are arranged in the same order, as the objects to which they relate; as, lgnaria corpus hicketal, labor firmat; illa maturam somecutaem, hie longam adolescentum reddit, Sloth enervates the body, labor strengthens it; the former produces premature old age, the latter protracted youth. Cels.

(b.) But the order is often reversed, so that hic refers to the object first mentioned, and ille to the one mentioned hast; as, Sic deus et cirvgo est; hic spe cêter, Ela timôre. Ovid. So when alter...alter, 'the one...the other,' refer to two things mentioned before, the previous order is sometimes observed and sometimes reversed; but wherever there is ambiguity the order is reversed, so that the first alt's refers to the last object. Sometimes hic...hic are used instead of hic .ille. Sc. ille...ille sometimes denote 'the one...the other.'

(c.) Hie and ille have the same relation to time present and past as mune and tune, see § 277; and hence whatever, in speaking of present time, is expressed by hie and its derivative adverbs, hie, hine, hac, and adhue, is expressed by ide

and its derivatives, when it is spoken of as belonging to past time.

REM. 24. Ille, when not in opposition to hic, is often used to denote that which is of general notoriety; as, Magno illi Alexandro simillimus, Very like Alexander the Great. Vell. Média illu, The celebrated Medea. Uic. Hence ille is sometimes added to other pronouns, to refer to something discussed before; as, Archant visire, quis ille tot per amos opes nostrus spricissel. Tac. Ille is sometimes translated this; as, Lumu illud dico, This only I say. Cic. Ille

sometimes marks a change of persons, and may then be translated 'the other as, Vercingetôric obvium Casari proficiscitur. Ille (scil. Casar) oppidam Noviodiman oppignāre institutrat. Casar.

REM. 25. Is to properly refers to the person addressed, and for this reason is called the demonstrative of the second person.—Ille refers to the person spoken of, and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person. Thus is to like in thy book, but ille like is the book of which we are speaking. Hence, in leters, like and its derivatives are used of the writer; is the and its derivatives are used of the writer; is the and its derivatives of the person addressed; ille, etc., of some other person or thing. See § 191, R. 1, (ϵ), lete from its frequent forensic use, and its application to the opponent often denotes contempt.

REM. 26. (a.) Is does not, like hic, ille, and iste, denote the place or order of the object to which it relates, but either refers without particular emphasis to something already mentioned or to something which is to be defined by the relative qui. Hic, is, or ille, may be used in this way before the relative, but only hic or is after it; as, Qui docet, is discit, or hic discit, but not ille discit, unless some individual is referred to.

(b.) Is before a relative or ut has sometimes the sense of tālis, such, denoting a class; as, Nêque ênim tu is cs, qui quid sis nescius, Nor are you such a person, as not to know what you are. Cic.; sometimes it has the force of idem; as, vos

—ii. Cic. Manil. 12.

(c) If the nom to which is refers is to receive some additional predicate, we must use et is, atque is, isque, et is quidem, and with a negative nec is; as, Vincúla vêro, et en semplterna, etc. Cic. Una in domo, et ea quidem angusta, etc. Id. Adolescentes altiquot, nec ii timii loco orti, etc. Liv. Sed is in used when the additional predicate is opposed to the preceding; as, Secritätem in senectate probo, sed eam, sicut alia, modicam. Cic. The neuter et id, or idgue, serves to introduce an addition to the preceding proposition; as, Quamquam te, Marce f'ili, annum jam audientem Cratippum, idque Albenis, etc.

(d.) Is is not expressed when it would be in the same oblique case as the preceding noun to which it refers; as, Păter ămat libéros et tâmen castigat.

Multos illustrat fortuna, dum rexat.

(e.) When in English 'that' or 'those' is used instead of the repetition of the preceding substantive, is is never used in Latin, and ille only in later authors. In such cases the noun is commonly not repeated in Latin, and no promun is used in its place; as, Philippus lostium minus sape vitavit, subran efficience of this own subjects. Curt. Sometimes the substantive is repented; as, Jahetia civilatis evan jahetia principis certant. Vell. Sometimes a possessive adjective is used instead of the genitive depending on the omitted substantive; as, Terentii fabians stabilise légo, Plantinis minus délector: and sometimes instead of the genitive or a possessive adjective the name of the person itself is put in the case which the verb governs; as, Si cum Lycurgo et Dracône et Sólône nostras l'eyes conferve volheirits. Cic.—In Cicero hic and ille, when the preceding substantive is understood, retain their demonstrative signification, and therefore do not merely supply the place of the omitted substantive; as, Nullum ênin virtus álium mercedem désiderat, præter hanc, i. e. the one of which I am speaking. Cic.

Rem. 27. (a.) $Id \in m$, as denoting a subject which stands in equal relations to two different predicates, often supplies the place of $lim or \dot{e}tiam$, 'also,' at the same time,' or of lim or, 'vet,' if the things are apparently inconsistent, as, $M\ddot{a}sici$, qai $\dot{e}ront$ quondam inlem porlas, Musicians, who formerly were poets also. Cic. Euphrotics et Tigris magno aquirum divortio iter percurrunt; idem land vet) poulation in arctius columt.

(h.) Et ipse, on the other hand, denotes that the same predicate belongs to two subjects. It is rendered by 'too' or 'also'; as, Andohrus Commodus mild peterumu habite, nist quod contra Germânos feliciter et ipse pagnévit, for item or ipse quogne. Eutr.—So, also, acc ipse is used in the sense of 'neither'; as, Primis répulsis Maharbal cum mājorē robore virorum mūssus nec ipse ēruptionum cohertum sustanut. Liv.

(c.) Idem is sometimes repeated in the sense of 'at once,' denoting the union of qualities which might be thought incompatible; as, Fuere quidam qui iidem ornāte idem versūte dīcerent, There have been some who could speak at once

elegantly and artfully. Cic. (d.) 'The same as' is variously expressed in Latin, by idem with qui, ac of atque, quam, quàsi, ut or cum; as, Verres idem est qui fuit semper, Verres is the same as he has always been. Cic. Vita est exidem ac fuit. Liv. Disputationem expônimus iisdem fere verbis ut actum est. Cic. Eandem constituit pôtestatem quam si, etc. Cic. Eodem loco res est, quasi ea pecania legata non esset. Id. Hunc ego codem mecum patre genitum, etc. So also poetically with the dative; as, Eadem aliis sopitu' quiete est. Lucr. Cf. § 222, R. 7.

IPSE, Intensive or Adjunctive.

REM# 28. (a.) Ipse, when used with a substantive pronoun taken reflexively, agrees either with such pronoun or with the subject of the proposition, according as either is emphatic; as, Agam per me ipse, I will do it myself. Cic. Non ègeo médicina (i. e. ut àlii me consolentur); me ipse consolor. Cic. Accusando eum, a cujus crudelitāte vosmet ipsi armis rindicastis. Liv.— Cn. Pompeium omnibus, Lentulum mihi ipsi antepono. Cic. Fac ut te ipsum custodias. Id. Deforme est de se ipsum prædicare. Id.-But Cicero often construes ipse as the subject, even where the emphasis belongs to the object; as, Quid est negotii continere eos, quibus præsis, si te ipse contineas?

(b.) When ipse is joined with a possessive pronoun used reflexively, it usually takes the case of the subject; as, Mean ipse ligem nightgo; not mean ipsius, according to § 211, R. 3, (a). So, Si ex scriptis cognosci ipsi suis potuissent. Cic. Eam fraudem vestrā ipsi virtūte vitastis. Liv. But the genitive is necessary when the possessive does not refer to the subject; as, Tuā ipsius causā hoc fēci. And it is sometimes found where the case of the subject should be used; as, Conjectūram de tuo ipsius studio ceperis, instead of ipse.—(c.) Ipse is sometimes used as reflexive without sui; as, Omnes boni, quantum in ipsis fuit, Clesarem occide-

runt. Cic.

(d.) Ipse, with nouns denoting time or number, expresses exactness, and (a) Ipse, with nouns denoting time or infiline, expresses exactives, and may be rendered, 'just,' 'precisely'; or 'very,' 'only'; as, Dyrrhāchio sum profectus ipso illo die, quo lex est data de nobis, on the very day. Cic. Triginta dies érant insi, quum has dubam literas, per quos nullus a robis accipiram, just thirty days. Id. Et quisquem dibitabit—quum facile império atque exercitu. socios et vectigalia conservaturus sit, qui ipso nomine ac rumbre defenderit, by his very name, or, by his name only. Id.

GENERAL RELATIVES.

REM. 29. Quicumque, quisquis, and the other general relatives (see § 139,5, R., are, in classical prose, always connected with a verb, and form the protasis. Quicumque is commonly used as an adjective, and quisquis as a substantive; but the neuter quodcumque is used as a substantive with a following genitive; as, Quodcumque militum; and, on the other hand, quisquis is rarely an adjective; as, Quisquis erit vita color. Hor.; and even the neuter quidquid is used in the same manner; as, Quisquis honos tămăli, quidquid solamen hămandi est. Virg. Quicumque seems sometimes even in Cicero equivalent to omnis or quivis; as, Qua sanari poterunt, quacumque ratione sanabo, What can be cured, I will cure by every possible means. Cic. Yet possum is rather to be supplied; in whatever way I can.' But in later writers quicumque is frequently used in the absolute sense for quivis or quilibet; as, Ciceronem cuicumque corum fortiter opposuerim. Quint. Qualiscumque and quantuscumque are likewise used in an absolute sense by ellipsis; as, Tu non concupisces quanticumque ad libertatem pervenire? At any price, be it ever so high. Sen. So quisquis is occasionally used, not as a relative, but as an indefinite pronoun. - Siquis often seems to stand as a relative, like the Greek tite for octes, 'whoever'; but it always contains the idea of 'perhaps'; as, Nuda fere Alpium cacamina sunt, et si quid set pabult, corunt nives Liv.

Indefinite Pronouns.

REM. 30. (a.) Aliquis and quispiam are particular and affirmative, corresponding to the English some one; as, Hereditas est pecunia, qua morte alicujus ad quempiam percenit jure, An inheritance is property which, at the death of some one, falls to some (other) one by law. Cic. Multi sine doctrina aliquid

omnium générum et artium conséquentur. Id.

(b.) Äliquis is more emphatic than the indefinite pronoun quis. (See § 137, (3.) Hence aliquis stands by itself, but quis is commonly connected with certain conjunctions or relative words, but these are sometimes separated from it by one or more words. Sometimes, however, quis is used without such conjunctions or relatives; as, Morbus aut egestas aut quid ejusmodi. Cic. Letrahere quid de ăliquo. Id. Injuriam cui făcere. Id. So, Dizerit quis, Some one might say. But even after those conjunctions which usually require quis, aliquis is used when employed antithetically and of course emphatically; as, Timibut Pompeius omniu, ne aliquid vos timérêtis. Cic. In English the emphasis of aliquis is sometimes expressed by 'really'; as, Sensus moriendi, si aliquis esse potest, is ad exiguum tempus dărul. Cic.—Quispiam, also, is sometimes used like quis after si, etc., and sometimes stands alone; as, Quæret fortasse quispiam.

REM. 31. (a.) Quisquam, 'any one,' and ullus, 'any,' are universal. Like um-

quam and usquam they are used in propositions which involve a universal negative, or which express an interrogation with a negative force, or a condition (usually with si or quasi); also, after comparatives, after the adverb vix, and the preposition sine; as. Neque ex castris Catiline quisquam omnium discessérat Nor had any one departed from the camp of Catiline. Sall. Nec ullo casu potest contingère, ut ulla intermissio f at officii. Cic. An quisquam pôtest sine per-turbătione mentis irasci? Id. Tetrior hic tyrannus Syrācūsānis fuit, quam quisquam supériorum. Id. Vix quidquam spei est. Sen. But after the dependent negative particles ne, neve, and the negative interrogative particle num, quis and

not quisquam is used.

(b.) But quisquam and ullus after si are often used not in a negative sense, but instead of aliquis or quis, serving only to increase the indefiniteness which would be implied in the latter pronouns; as, Aut enim nemo, quod quidem magis crédo, aut, si quisquam, ille sopiens fuit, if any man. Cic. Hence, ultimately, even without si, where the indefiniteness is to be made emphatic, quisquam, ullus, umquam and usquam were used; as, Quamdiu quisquam erit, qui te defendere audeat, rives. Cic. Bellum maxime omnium memorabile, que umquam gesta sunt, scripturus sum. Tac.

(c.) Ullus is properly an adjective, but quisquam is commonly used without a noun, except it is a word denoting a person; as, Cuiquam ciri, To any citizen. Cujusquam oratoris eloquentiam. Hence quisquam corresponds to the substantive nemo and ullus to the adjective nullus. Nemo is often used with other substantives denoting male persons so as to become equivalent to the adjective nullus; as, nêmo pictor, nêmo adolescens, and even homo nêmo. Cic. Quisquam is sometimes used in a similar manner: as, quisquam homo, quisquam civis. On the other hand nullus and ullus are used as substantives instead of nemo and

quisquam, especially the genitive nullius and the ablative nullo.

REM. 32. (a.) Alius, like allus, though properly an adjective, is sometimes use! like a pronoun. It is often repeated, or joined with an adverb derived from it, in the same proposition, which may be translated by two separate propositions, commencing respectively with 'one ... another'; as, Aliud aliis videtur optimum, One thing seems best to one, another to another. Cic. Aliis Minude prividium est, Danger threatens one from one source, another from another; or, Danger threatens different persons from different sources. Ter. Dionysium aliter cam aliis de nobis locatum audicham. Cic.-Alter is used in the same manner when only two persons are spoken of, but there are no adverbs derived from it; as, Alter ir alterum causam conferunt, They accuse each other.

(b.) Alius, repeated in different propositions, is also translated 'one...another'; as, Aliud agitur, aliud simulatur, One thing is done, another pretended. Cic. Aliter log tur, aliter scribit, like aliter ac or atque, He speaks otherwise than

he writes. So Aliua loquitur, aliud scribit.

(c.) Tterque, 'each of two,' is always used by Cicero in the singular number, when only two individuals are spoken of. Its plural, atrique, is used only when each of two parties consists of several individuals; as, Maccidines—Tjrii, atrique. But in other good prose writers the plural atrique is occasionally used in speaking of only two; as, Utrique Diongist. No. Ct. § 209, R. 11, (4.)

REM. 33. (a.) Quidam differs from oldanis by implying that a person or thing, though indefinitely described, is definitely known; as, Quidam de collègis mostris, A certain one of our colleagues. Cic. Seis me quodam tempore Mit-

apontum vēnisse tēcum. Id.

(b.) Quidam is sometimes used for some, as opposed to the whole, or to others; as, Excesserunt urbe quidam, alii mortem sibi conscieerunt, Some departed from the city, others destroyed themselves. Liv. Hence it is used to soften an expression, where in English we say 'so to speak,' etc.; as, Milvo est quoddam bellum natūrāle cum.corvo, A kind of natural warfare. Cic. Fut einn illud quodam occum tempus servitātis. Id. Elēnim omnes artes qua ad hāmāntātem pertiment, hābent quoddam commine vincilum et quāsi cognātiome quādam inter se continentur. Id.— Tamquam is used for the same purpose, and also ut ita dēcau.

REM. 34. Quivis and quilibet, any one, and unusquisque, each, are universal and absolute; as, Omnia sunt ejusmödi quivis ut perspicere possit, All are of such a nature that any one can perceive. Cic. Hie oppu majores nostros adhibibative peritus, numc quilibet. Id. Notiera ununquemque trahit ad discendum. A negative joined with them denies only the universality which they imply; as, Non cuivis homini contingit adire Covinduum, i. e. not to every man without

distinction. Hor. Cuiquam would have made the negation universal.

Rem. 35. (a.) Qu'is que signifies each, every one, distributively or relatively, and generally stands without a noun; as, Quod cuique obtigit, id quisque tineat, Let each one keep what has fallen to each. Cic. Hence it is used particularly after relative and interrogative pronouns and adverbs; as, Scipio pollicitur sib magane cire fore, ut omnia critifatibus, que criusque faissent, restituérentur. Cic. Ut preadici posset, quid cuique éventurum, et quo quisque fato nâus esset. Id. Cur flat quidque queris: recte omnino. Id. Quo quisque est soldertor, hoc docet laboriosius. Id. Ut quisque optime dicit, itu maxine dicendi difficultatien timet. Id. And hence the expression quotusquesque in the sense of 'how few among all.' It is also used distributively after numerals; as, Décinus quisque sorte lectus, Every tenth man. Quinto quoque anno, In every fifth year. So also after susu; as, Sui cuique libori carissimi: suum cuique plâcet. (Respecting the order of the words, cf. § 279, 14: and respecting quisque in the nominative in apposition to a noun or pronoun in the ablative absolute or in the accusative with the infinitive, see § 204, R. 10.)

(b.) Quisque with a superlative, either in the singular or the plural, denotes universality, and is generally equivalent to omnes with the positive; as, doctastimus quisque, Every learned man, i. c. all the learned; but often, also, in conhection with the verb, it retains the idea of a reciprocal comparison, and is to be rendered by the superlative; as, h omai arte optimum quidque rărissimum, The best is the rarest. Cic. Altisstima quaeque flumina minimo sôno liduntar. The deepest rivers flow with the least sound. Curt. With primus, it denotes

the first possible; as, Primo quoque tempore, As soon as possible. Cic.

Possessives.

REM. 36. (a.) The possessive pronouns mens, tuns, suns, noster, and vester, are joined to nouns, to indicate an action or possession of the persons denoted by their primitives; as, Tuns amor mens est tib, My love is secure to you. Ovid. Tnam vicem ddiver soleo. Cic.—These pronouns, as in English, when belonging to two substantives, are generally expressed but once, even when the substantives are of different genders; as, amor tuns ac judicium de me.

(b.) But these pronouns are sometimes used when the persons to which they refer are the objects of an action, feeling, etc.; as, Nam neque tun neighborish, we prove other in facilities in the facilities. For he did it meither through neglect nor harded of wor.

Ter. See § 211, R. 3.

(a) The possessive pronouns, especially when used as reflexives, are often omitted; as, Quo réverur' in patriam' scil. meam, Whither shall I return' to (my) country? Ovid. Dextrà manera porrezil, scil. sua. Id. But they are expressed when emphasis or contrast is intended, where in English 'own' might be added to the pronoun; as, Ego non dicam, tamen id pôtéritis cum animis vestris côgitare. Cic.

(d.) When besides the person of the subject, that of a remote object also occurs in the proposition, the possessive pronoun will refer to the latter; as,

Patris antmum mihi reconciliasti, i. e. patris mei antmum rather than tui.

(e.) As reflexives, meus, etc., are translated my, thy, his, her, its, our, your

(e.) As reflexives, meus, etc., are translated my, thy, his, her, its, our, your their; or my own, thy own, his own, etc.

THE REFLEXIVES SUI AND SUUS.

§ 208. Rem. 37. (a.) Sui and suus properly refer to the subject of the proposition in which they stand; as,

Oppidani făcinus in se ac suos fœdum consciscunt, The citizens decide on a foul crime against themselves and their friends. Liv.

(b.) The continue to be used in successive clauses, if the subject remains the same; as,

Ipse se quisque diligit, non ut áliquam a se ipse mercêdem exigat căritătis sux, sed quod per se sibi quisque cărus est. Cic.

(1.) In dependent clauses, in which the subject does not remain the same, the reflexives are commonly used in references to the leading subject, when the thoughts, language, purposes, etc., of that subject are stated; as,

Arivistus predicivit, non size Gallis, sed Gallos shi bellum intilisse, Arivistus declared that he had not made war upon the Gauls, but the Gauls upon him. Gres. Hömörum Cölöphömi cirem esse dienat suum, The Colophonians say that rent. Id. But sometimes, to avoid ambiguity, the cases of is or ille are used in such clauses in references to the leading subject; as, Helviti size Alboriges vi cacdinos existimábant, ut per suos f'use soo ire polivertur. Gas. Here suos refers to the subject of the dependent clause, and cos to Helviti, the subject of the leading clause. And sometimes, even in the same dependent clause, two reflexive pronouns are used, referring to different persons; as, Scythee pètébant ut règis sui filam matiruhoùe sibi jangfert. Curt.

(2.) If, however, the leading subject, whose thoughts, etc., are expressed, is indefinite, the reflexives relate to the subject of a depend-

ent clause; as,

Mēdēam pradīcant (scil. hōmines) in fūgā frātris sui membra in iis lūcis, quā se pārens persēquērtur, dissīpāvisse. Cic. Ipsum rēgem trādunt opērātum his sacris se abdīdisse. Liv.

(3.) (a.) When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the re flexive often refers not to its subject, but to that which would be its subject in the active voice; as,

A Clesare invitor ut sim sibi l'yatus, i. e. Clesar me invitat, I am invited by Clesar to become his lieutenant. Cic.

(b.) So when the subject is a thing without life, the reflexive may relate to some other word in the sentence, which denotes a thing having life; as,

Cănum tarı fida custădia quid significat ăliud, nisi se ad hôminum commoditătes esse generatus? Cic.

(4.) Instead of sui and suus, whether referring to a lealing or a subordinate subject, inse is sometimes used, to avoid ambiguity from the similarity of both numoers of sui, and also to mark more emphatically than suus, the person to whom it relates; as,

Jugurtha lēgātos mīsit, qui ipsi līberisque rītam pētērent, Jugurtha sene ambassadors to ask life for himself and his children. Sall. Ea mõlestissime ferre

homines debent, quæ ipsorum culpā contracta sunt.

(5.) In the plural number, with inter, se only is used, if the person or thing referred to is in the nominative or accusative; se or ipse, if in any other case; as,

Fratres inter se quum formă, tum möribus similes, Brothers resembling each orter both in person and character. Cic. Feras inter sese conciliat nătăra. Cic. Incidunt dăqua a doctis litam inter ipsos mătuo reprehensa. Quint.

(6.) (a.) When reference is made not to the subject of the proposition, but to some other person or thing, hic, is, or ille, is generally used, except in the cases above specified; as,

Themistocles servum ad Xerxem misit, ut ei nuntiaret, suis verbis, adversarios eins in fügā esse, Themistocles sent his servant to Xerxes, to inform him (Xerxes), in his (Themistocles') name, that his (Xerxes') enemies were upon the point of flight. Nep.

(b) But when no ambiguity would arise, and especially when the verb is of the first or second person, sui and suus sometimes take the place of the demonstrative pronouns; as,

Suam rem sibi salvam sistam, I will restore his property entire to him. I mut

(c.) On the contrary, the demonstratives are sometimes used for the reflexives; as,

Helvētii persuādent Raurācis, ut ūnā cum iis proficiscantur, The Helvetii persuade the Rauraci to go with them. Cas.—In some instances, a reflexive and a demonstrative are used in reference to the same person; as, lus se gessil (scil. Ligārius) ut ei pēcem esse expēdiret. Cic. C. Claudii orantis per sui fritris pārentisque ējus mānes. Liv.—Sometimes the reflexives refer to different subjects in the same sentence; as, Arioristus respondit, nominem sēcum sine and pernīcie contendisse (Cas.); where se refers to Ariovistus, and suā to nominem.

(7.) (a.) Suus often refers to a word in the predicate of a sentence, and is then usually placed after it; as,

Hunc cives sui ex urbe éjécérunt, Him his fellow-citizens banished from the city. Cic. Titurius quum procul Ambiorigem, suos cohortantem, conspexisset. Cæs.

(b.) Suus, and not hūjus, is used when a noun is omitted; as,

Octavius quem sui (scil. ămīci) Cesărem sălătăbant, Octavius, whom his fclowers saluted as Cæsar.

(c.) Suus is also commonly used when two nouns are coupled by zum but not when they are connected by a conjunction; as,

Ptölémæus ămicos Demetrii cum suis rēbus dimisit, Ptolemy dismissed the friends of Demetrius with their effects. Just.

(8.) Suus sometimes denotes fit, favorable; as,

Simt et sua dona porenti, There are likewise for my father suitable presents. Virg. Ut libérator ille pôpuli Römáni oppériritur tempôra sua. Liv. Alphèrus 216bûtur pôpulo sône suo. Cic. Sometimes it signifies peculiur; us, Molles sua târa Sibai, seil. mittunt, i. c. the frankincense for which their country was facus. Virg. Pessoopre sopor suus occipant artus. Id.

NOMINATIVE.

SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE AND VERB.

§ 200. (a.) The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative.

NOTE I. (a.) A verb in any mood except the infinitive is called a finite verb. (b.) In historical writing the nominative is sometimes joined with the present infinitive instead of the imperfect indicative. Cf. R. 5.

(b.) A verb agrees with its subject-nominative, in number and person; as,

Ego lego, I read.
Tu scribis, Thou writest.
Eguus currit, The horse runs.

Nos legimus, We read. Vos scribitis, Yon write. Equi currunt, Horses run.

NOTE 2. The imperative singular is sometimes used in addressing several persons; as, *Hue addres* adjace septem, seil. vos, *Thébatobes*. Ovid. Met. 6, 182. So Adde défectionem lullie, seil. vos, milites. Liv. 26, 41.

REMARK 1. (a.) The nominatives ego, tu, nos, vos. are seldom expressed, the termination of the verb sufficiently marking the person; as.

Căpio, I desire; vīcis, thon livest; hābēmus, we have. See § 147, 3.

(b.) But when emphasis or opposition is intended, the nominatives of the first and second persons are expressed; as, Ego réges ôfci, vos thramos introductiis, I banished kings, von introduce tyrants. Auct at Her. Nos, nos, dioc ûperte, consûles distinus, Cic. Tn es patrônus, tn pôter. Ter. In indignant questions and addresses tu is expressed; as, Tn in forum prôdire, tn ûcem conspicêre, tn în hôrum conspectum vêntre côndris? Auct ad Her.

Rem. 2. The nominative of the third person is often omitted:-

(1.) When it has been expressed in a preceding proposition :-

(a.) As nominative: as, Misa profluit ex monte Visigo, et in Occomun influit. Cass; or (b) in an oblique case; as, Cursoren mistrant, ut id muntiaret, seil, cursor. Nep.: or (c) in a possessive adjective; as, El cèreor quo se Jinionia vertant Hospitia; haud tanto cessabit cardine rérum, seil illa, i. e. Jūnō. Virg En. I. 672.

(2.) When it is a general word for person or thing:—

Thus homines is often omitted before aiunt, dicunt, férund, etc.; as, Ut aunt As they say. Cic. Maxime admirantur eum, qui préminé non méoètur. Id.—
So bène est, bène hàbet or bêne âgtinr, It is well; as, Si vales, bène est, ego valeo Cic. Quam mélius est, grâtălor dis. Afran. Optume hâbet, Nothing can be beter. Plant. Bène hàbet: jucta sunt fundâmenta défensionis. Cic. Bène àgitut pro noxia. Plant.

Note 3. This omission of the nominative is common in the clause preceding a relative; as, Qui Băvium non ôdit, âmet tua carmina, Mœvi, scil. hômo, Let him who hates not Bavius, love your verses, Mævins. Virg. Vasidiar agri quad inter urbem ac Fidenas est, scil. id spătium. Liv. Sunt quas jivent...scil. hômines, There are (those) whom it delights. Hor. Est qui nev cêteris pôcial Mussici spernit, scil. h5mo. Hor. Here sunt quos and est qui are equivalent to quâdam, ultquis, or diqui. So, Est quad gaadeus, There is (reason) wiy you should resource. Cic. Noque evut cur fullere vellent. Ovid. Est ubi id vâleat. Cic. Est, quam n'n cet sătius, etc. Anct. ad Her. In the latter cases the adverbs are squival nt to m quo, scil. Kco, tempôre

REM. 3 (1.) The nominative is wanting before verbs denoting the state of the weather, or the operations of nature; as,

Fulgarat, It lightens. Plin. Ningit, It snows. Virg. Lucescebat, It was growing light. Liv. Jam advesperascit. Cic.

(2.) The nominative is also wanting before the third person singular of the passive of neuter verbs, and of active verbs used impersonally; as,

Făvētur tibi a me, Thou art favored by me. Ejus ōrātiōni vēhēmenter ab omnibus reclāmātum est. Cic. Proinde ut bēne victur, diu victur. Plaut. Ad catum ventum est. Sen. Actum est de império. See § 184, 2: and cf. § 229, R. 5, (b.)

Note 4. A nominative, however, is expressed before the passive of some neuter verbs, which, in the active voice, are followed by an accusative; as, Pugna pugnāta est. Gic. See § 232, (1.)

(3.) It is wanting also before the neuter of the future passive participle with est; as,

Si vis me flère dölendum est primum ipsi tibi, If you wish me to weep, you yourself must first grieve. Hor. Orandum est, ut sit mens sâna in corpore sâno. Juv. Ad villam revertendum est. Cic.

(4.) The nominative is also wanting before the impersonal verbs miseret, panitet, padet, tadet, and piget; as,

Eos ineptiarum penitet, They repent of their follies. Cic. Misèret te allibrum, tui te nec misèret nec pudet. Plaut. Me ciritatis morum piget tedetque. Sal.—In such examples, the sense will sometimes permit us to supply fortuna, conditio, mémòria, etc. So in the expression, Vênit in mentem, It came into mind as, In mentem vênit de spèculo, scil. cigitatio, etc. Plaut.—An infinitive or a subjunctive clause sometimes forms the subject of these verbs; as, Te id nullo modo piduit facère, To do that by no means shamed you. Ter. Non penitet me, quantum profécerim. Cic.

(5.) The subject of the verb is sometimes an infinitive or a neuter participle (either alone or with other words), one or more propositions, or an adverb. (Cf. § 202, R. 2 and 3: and § 274, R. 5, (b.) The verb is then in the third person singular; as,

Văcăre culpă magnum est soldium, To be free from fault is a great consolation. Neque est te iallere quidquam, To deceive you in any thing is not (possible.) Virg. Mentiri non est meum. Plant. Te non istud audivisse mirum est, That you have not heard that is wonderful. Cic. 'Summum jus, summa injūriu,' factum est jam tritum sermone proverbium. Id. Ni degeneratum in aliis kuic quoque decori off-cisset. Liv. (Cf. § 274, R. 5, (b.) Sin est ut velis mainere illem apud te. Ter. Nec profaul Higdra crescère per dammun, genniansqua résămère vires. Ovid. Dic nulti, cras istud, Postime, quando rénil? Tell me, Postumus, when does that to-morrow come? Mart. Părumne campis atque Nepămosiper fisum est Lătini sanguluis? Hor.

(a.) This construction is especially common with impersonal verbs; as, Oratoren inacci non decet, That an orator should be angry, is not becoming. Gic. Hoc fieri et oportet et opus est. Id. Me pedibus delectat claudere verba, Hor. Intérest omnium recte facère. Cic. Cisu accidit, ut, id quod Röme andièrat primus nuntiaret. Id. Sometimes a neuter pron un is interposed between a proposition and its verb; as, Impine facère que libet, id est régem esse. Sall.

Cf. § 206, (13,) (a.)

(6.) The nominative is also wanting before potest, capit or captum est, incipit, dēsīnit, dēbet, sölet, and vūdētur, when followed by the infinitive of an impersonal verb; as,

Pigëre eum facti capit, It began to repent him (i. e. he began to repent) of his conduct. Just. Săpientia est una, quă praceptrice, in tranquillitate vivi po-Tædere sölet avaros impendii. Quint.

Rem. 4. The verb is sometimes omitted; as,

Di meliòra piùs, seil, dent or velint, May the gods grant better things to the pions. Virg. Verum hee hackinus, seil dizimus. Cic. Pertineo is understood in such expressions as nihil ad me, nihil ad rem; Quid hoc ad Epicirum? What is that for?—Părabo is to be supplied, in Quo mihi hanc rem? What is that for?—Părabo is to be supplied, in Quo mihi hanc rem? Of what use is this to me? and, Unde mihi àdiquam rem? Whence am I to get any thing? as, Quo mihi bibliotheas? Sen. Unde mihi lipidem? Hor. A tense of facto i often to be supplied, as in Recte ille, melius hi; Bêne Chripsippus, qui dôcet. Cic Nihil per vin unquam Clòdius, omnia per vin Milo. Id. Que quum diesseet Cotta finem. Id. So, also în the phrases nihil diud quam; quid alud quam bellum compărăvit. Nep. This verb is in like manner omitted with nihil annplus quam; nihi unvas quam, and in the phrases in hild ülud.—Ai or inavit is some-Di meliora piis, scil. dent or velint, May the gods grant better things to the quam; nihil minus quam, and in the phrase si nihil alind.—Ait or inquit is some-times omitted in introducing the direct words of another, and more frequently in relating a connected conversation; as, Tum ille; hic ego; huic ego. Dicit is sometimes omitted in quoting a person's words; as, Scite Chrysippus: ut gladii causă văginam, sic præter mundum cetera omnia aliorum causă esse generata. Cic. -After per in adjurations oro, rogo or precor is often omitted; as, Per ego vos After per in anjutations ore, rope of preter is often confined, as, 2 et ege except does patrics, vindicate ab ultimo deléctore nômen gentenque Perstrum; i. e. per dees patrios vos ôre, vindicate. Curt. This omission is most common with the copula sum; as, Num Poliforius êço, ceil. sum, For I am Polydorus. Virg. And so est and sunt are often omitted with predicate adjectives, and especially in proverbial phrases; as, Quot homanes tot sententien. Ter. Omaia preclara vira, will sunt. Cic. So also est and sunt are often omitted in the compound tenses (Cart. According to the control of the compound tenses). of the passive voice; as, Agro mulctāti, scil. sunt. Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 3.

Note 5. In Latin, as in English, a verb is often joined to one of two connected nominatives and understood with the other, and that even when the persons are different; as, mágis êgo te âmo, quant tu me, scil. âmos. After a negative verb a corresponding positive verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after nêgo, dico, after vêto, jûbeo, and in this case et takes the signification of and of the same and the negative verb is constituted in this case et takes the signification of and of the same and the negative verb is constituted in the same and the negative verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after nêgo, dico, after vêto, jûbeo, and in this case et takes the signification of the negative verb is negative verb in the negative verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after nêgo, dico, after vêto, jûbeo, and in this case et takes the signification of the negative verb is negative verb in the negative verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after nêgo, dico, after vêto, jûbeo, and in this case et takes the signification of the negative verb is negative verb in the negative verb in the negative verb is negative verb in the negative verb

sed. Cf. § 323, 1, (2.), (b.)

Note 6. Sometimes, when the verb of an appended proposition is omitted, AOIR 6. Southernes, when the verto an appendice projection with which is joined a participle of the omitted verb; as, Hanatbal Minacium, magistum épaitum, pári ac dietātorem délo productum in pracilum, fajaveit, i. e. pári ac dietātore délo productus hum, con se la constituent participle of the original participle. So Liv. 34, 32.

Rem. 5. In the historic style the nominative is sometimes found with the present infinitive; as,

Interim quotidie Casar Æduos frumentum flagitare, Meanwhile Casar was daily demanding corn of the Ædui. Cæs. Nos păvidi trepidare metu. Virg. Id horrendum ferri. Id.

NOTE 7. The infinitive in this construction is called the historical infinitive. and is used instead of the imperfect indicative to express in a lively manner a continued or repeated action or condition.

REM. 6. The relative qui may refer to an antecedent either of the first, second, or third person; and its verb takes the person of the antecedent; as,

Egc qui lego, I who read. Tu qui scribis, Thou who writest. Equus qui currit, The horse which runs. Vos qui quæritis, You who ask.

Rem. 7. (a.). Verbs in the first person plural, and the second person singular, are sometimes used to express general truths; as,

Quam multa fácimus causa amicorum! How many things we do (i. e. men do) or the sake of friends! Cic. Si vis me flère, dolendum est primus ipsi tihi, Whoever vishes me, etc. Hor.

(b.) Nos is often used for ego, and noster for mens; and even when the pronoun is not expressed, the verb is frequently put in the first person plural instead of the first person singular. The genitive nostri is used for mei, but nostrim always expresses a real plurality.

REM. 8. The accusative is sometimes used for the nominative by attraction. See § 206, (6.) (b.)

REM. 9. The verb sometimes agrees with the predicate-nominative, especially if it precedes the verb; as, Amantium tree âmôris integratio est, The quarrele of lovers are a renewal of love. Ter. Lôca, que proxima Curthâginem, Nilmidia appellatur. Sall. And sometimes it agrees with the nearest subject of a subordinate sentence; as, Sed ei câriora semper omnia, quam décus atque pâdicitia fuit. Sall. Cat. 25.

REM. 10. In cases of apposition, the verb commonly agrees with the noun which is to be explained; as, Tullida, delicie nostre, flagitat. Cic. But sometimes the verb agrees, not with the principal nominative, but with a neurer noun in apposition to it; as, Tungri, civitas Gallie, fonten habet insignem, The Tungri, a state of Gaul, has a remarkable fountain. Plin. Córióli oppidum captum (est). Liv.

REM. 11. A collective noun has sometimes, especially in poetry, a plural verb; as,

Pars ěpůlis ŏněrant mensas, Part load the tables with food. Virg. Turba runnt. Ovid. Atria turba těnent; věniunt léve vulgus euntque. Id.

(1) (a.) A plural verb, joined to a collective noun, usually expresses the action, etc., of the indirichous which that noun denotes. In Cicero, Sallust, and Casar, this construction scarcely occurs in simple sentences; but it is often used, when the subject of the verb is expressed not in its own, but in a preceding clause; as, the tiden generit handno écénd, quod in terrá collécati sint, because they (scil. hômines) live on earth. Cic. In Livy it occurs more frequently; as, Lorros omais multitudo àbeunt.

(b.) Abstract nouns are sometimes used collectively, instead of their conoretes; as, nöbilitas for nöbiles, järentas for järënes, vicinin for vicini, servitiem for servi, kris armātūra for kiciter armāti, etc. (c.) Miles, egues, pēdes, and similar words are sometimes used collectively for the soldiery, the cavalry, etc.

(2.) When two or more clauses have the same collective noun as their subject, the verb is frequently singular in the former, and plural in the latter; as, Jan ne nocte quiden turba ex co lico dilabebatur, refractarosque carrefrem minabantur. Liv. Gens eadem, que te crideli Dannia bello insequitur, nos si pellant, abid obfore crédant. Virg.

(3.) Tantum, followed by a genitive plural, has sometimes a plural verb, like a collective noun; as, Quid hac tantum hôminum incédunt? Why are so many men coming hither? Plant.

(4.) A plural verb is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, after iterque and quisque, pars...pars, alius...alium, and alter...altérum, on account of the idea of plurality which they involve; as, Ulerque corum ex castris exercitum édicart, Each of them leads his army from the camp. Cas. Intimus quisque Ebertorum vincti abreptique (sunt.) Tac. Alius álium, ut pralium incipiant, tircumspectant. Liv. Cl. § 207, R. 32, (c.)

Note 8. This construction may be explained by passages like the following, in which the plural is placed first, and then the singular, denoting its parts; Ccleri, suo quisque tempore, aderunt. Liv. Dicemviri perturbati alius in aliam partem castrorum discurrant. Id. See § 204, R. 10.

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Rem. 12. Two or more nominatives singular, not in apposition, generally have a plural verb; as,

Füror fraque mentem præcipitant, Fury and rage hurry (n (my) mind. Virg. Dum ætas, metus, mägister, prohibēbant. Ter.

(1.) If the predicate belongs to the several nominatives jointly, the verb is always plural; as, Grammatice quondam ac mūsice junetæ fuërunt. Quint.
(2.) A verb in the singular is often used after several nominatives.

(2.) A verb in the singular is often used after several nominatives singular, especially if they denote things without life; as,

Mens énim, et ratio et consilium in sénibus est. Cic. Bénèficentia, libérélitas, bantus, justitia funditus tollitur. Id.

Note 9. This construction is most common when the several nominatives, as in the preceding examples, constitute, as it were, but one idea. So also the compound subject Senatus populusque Romanus has always a predicate in the singular. The same construction sometimes, especially in the poets, occurs with names of persons; as, Gorgias, Thraispinathus, Pridagoras, Prodicus, Ilippias in honore fuit. Cic. Quin et Prometheus et Pelipis parens duki loborum decipitu, sono. Hor. When the nominatives denote both persons and things, the verb is commonly plural; as, Cotilo consalum et Pompeius obsunt. Liv.

(3.) When one of the nouns is plural, the verb is generally so; but sometimes it is singular, when the plural noun does not immediately precede it; as, Dil te péndics patrique, et patris imago, et domus régia, et in dômo régalle so-

lium, et nomen Tarquinium creat vocat que regem. Liv.

- (4.) When each of the nominatives is preceded by et or tum, the verb agrees with the last; as, Hoe et ritio doctis, et necessitas borbāvis, et mos gentilus, et fēris nātura ipsa præscripsit, This, reason has dictated to the learned, and necessity to barbarians, and custom to nations, and nature itself to wild beasts Cic. Et ego, et Chero meus flagitabit. Id. Tum retas viresque, tum ārāta gloria ānumum stimilābat. Liv. So when the subject consists of two infinitives; as, Et Tacere, et pati fortia, Romānum est. Cic. Unus et alter always takes a singular verb; as, Dīcit ānus et alter brēviter. Cic. Unus et alter assuitur pannus. Hor.
- (5.) When the nominatives are connected by aut, sometimes the plural, but commonly the singular, is used; as,

Si Sōcrătes aut Antisthènes diceret, If Socrates or Antisthenes should say. Cic Ut quosque stădium prīvātim aut grātia occūpāvērunt. Liv.

- (a.) The plural is necessary with disjunctives, if the subject includes the first or second person; as, Quod in Deceminis neque ego neque Cesar habiti essemus. Cic.—(b.) With aut...aut and nec...nec the singular is preferred, but with seu...seu and tam...quam the verb is in the plural.
- (6.) A nominative singular, joined to an ablative by the preposition cum, sometimes has a singular but more frequently a plural verb; as Douttins cum blessālā certus esse videbātur. Cie. Boechus, cum pēditībus, postrēmam Rōmānārum āctem invādunt, Boechus, with his foot-soldiers, attacks the rear of the Roman army. Sall: Ipse dux, cum ālīguot principībus, cāpinntur. Liv.
- (7) If the nominatives are of different persons, the verb is of the first person rather than the second or third, and of the second r _ uer than the third; as,

Si tu et Tullia vălētis, ēgo et Cicērō vălēmus, If you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Ihec wique ēgo nēgue tu fēcimus. Ter. ego pēgulusague Romānus bellum jūdico fāciogue. Liv.

(a.) Yet sometimes the verb agrees in number and person with the nearest nominative, and is understood with the other; as, Vos ipsi et candus fréquent restitit. This is always the case when the action of the vert is qualified with reference to each nominative separately; us, Eco minima in félicitar comin.

REM. 13. The interjections en, ecce, and O, are sometimes followed by the nominative; as,

En Priămus! Lo Priam! Virg. En égo, vester Ascănius. Id. Ecce homo Catienus! Cic Ecce tuæ literæ. Id. O vir fortis atque ămicus! Tor.

PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.

§ 210. A noun in the predicate, after a verb neuter or pas sive, is put in the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing; as,

(a.) When the subject is in the nominative; Ira f ŭror brêvis est, Anger is a short madness. Hor. Ego võcor Lyconīdes, I am called Lyconides. Plant Ego incedo regina, I walk a queen. Virg. Caius et Lūcius fratres fuerunt. Cic .-So (b.) when the subject is in the accusative with the infinitive; Judicem me esse volo. Cic.

(c.) Sometimes also a dative, denoting the same object, both precedes and follows a verb neuter or passive. See § 227, N.—And (d.) a predicate ablative sometimes follows passive participles of choosing, naming, etc.; as, Consuli-

bus certioribus factis. Liv. See § 257, R. 11.

(e.) If the predicate noun has a form of the same gender as the subject, it takes that form; as, Licentia corruptrix est morum. Cf. § 204, R. 2.—(f.) But if the subject is neuter, the noun of the predicate, if it has both a masculine and a feminine form, takes the former; as, Tempus vitæ magister est.

(g.) An infinitive may supply the place of a predicate nominative. See § 269,

Remark 1. (a.) Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, standing in the predicate, after verbs neuter or passive, and relating to the subject, agree with it in gender, number, and case.

(b.) When the subject consists of two or more nouns, the gender and number of such predicate adjectives are determined by § 205, R. 2.

Rem. 2. (a.) The noun in the predicate sometimes differs in gender and number from the subject; as, Sanguis erant lacrime, Her tears were blood. Ovid. Captivi militum præda fuerunt. Liv.

(b.) So when a subject in the singular is followed by an ablative with cum, the predicate is plural; as, Exsules esse jubet L. Tarquinium cum conjuge et lībēris. Liv.

REM. 3. The verbs which most frequently have a noun, etc., in the predicate agreeing in case, etc., with their subject, are :-

'1.) The copula sum; as, Ego Jóvis sum filius. Plaut. Disce esse pater. Ter. The predicate with sum may be an adverb of place, manner, etc.; as, Cuod est longe aliter. Cic. Rectissime sunt apud te omnia, Every thing with you is in a very good condition. Id.; or a noun in an oblique case; as, Namen d'ne ture est. Ovid. Sunt nobis mitia poma. Virg.

 Certain neuter verbs denoting existence, position, motion, etc.; as, rīro, exsisto, appāreo, cădo, eo, evado, fügio, inccido, jāceo, māneo, sedeo, sto, vēnio, etc. Thus, Rex circuibat pēdes, The king went round on foot. Plin. Quos judicabat non posse oratores evadere. Cic. Ego huic causæ patronus exstiti. Cic. Qui fit, ut nemo contentus vivat?

The passive of verbs denoting,

(a.) To n a m e or c a ll; as, appellor, dicor, nommor, nuncipor, perhibeor, vilutor, scribor, inscribor, vocor. Thus, Cognomine Justus est appellatas, He was called by the surname Just. Nep Aristeus olive dicitur inventer. Cia.

(c.) To cnoose, render, appoint, or constitute: as, constituor, ever d'éliror, d'signor, fligor, fio, redor, rénuncior. Thus, Dux a Rômânis électus est Q. Fúbius. Postquam éphébus factus est. Nep. Certior foctus sum.

(c.) To esteem or reckon; as, cessor, cognoscor, cridor, diprihendor cristinor, dicor, fivor, habour, judicor, membror, nimeror, putor, riperior, tideor, Thus, Cridor sanguins auctor (go Ovid. Maliar vider) tundus quam param

prūdens. Cic.

Note 1. With several passives of the last class, when followed by a predicate-nominative, etc., an infinitive of sum is expressed or understood; as, Amens mihi fuisse videor, I think I was beside myself. Cic. But the dative of the first person is sometimes omitted after videor; as, Stits decuisse videor. Id.—Attibus prüdens esse patabblar. Id. So with dicor (to be said), and perhibeor; as, Virus patrice diceris esse pater. Mart. Hoc ne locuitus sine mercede existimer. Phace.

Note 2. Audio is sometimes used by the poets like appellor; as, Tu rexque

păterque audisti coram. Hor.

REM. 4. A predicate-nominative is used after many other verbs to denote a purpose, time, or circumstance of the action; as, Comes additus £6-lides, £6-lides was added as a companion. Virg. Lūpus 6bombūlot nocturnus. Id. Appāret liquido sublimis in athère Nisus. Id. So with an active verb; Audīvi hoc puer. Cic. Sīpiens nil făcit invitus. Id. Rempūblicam dēfendi ādolescens. Id. Cf. § 204, R. 1.

Note 3. Instead of the predicate-nominative, a dative of the end or purpose sometimes occurs (see § 227); sometimes an ablative with pro; as, auddicia pro mūro est; and sometimes the ablatives lico or in nāmēro with a gentive;

as, ille est mihi părentis loco; in hostium numero habetur.

REM. 5. The noun opus, signifying 'need,' is often used as a predicate after sum. It is, in such cases, translated by the adjectives needful, necessary, etc.; as, Dux vibis et auctor opus est. Cic. Multi opus sunt bores. Varr. (Dixit) aurum et ancillas opus esse. Ter. Usus also is occasionally so construed.

REM. 6. When the pronoun, which is the subject of an infinitive, is omitted, the case of the predicate is sometimes, in the poets, attracted into that of the subject of the verb on which the infinitive depends; as, Uxor invicti Jóvis esse nescis, i. e. te esse uxorem. Hor. Rétalit Ajux esse Jóvis prónèpos. Ovid.

GENITIVE.

GENITIVE AFTER NOUNS.

§ 211. A noun which limits the meaning of another noun denoting a different person or thing, is put in the genitive; as,

Amor glòriæ, Love of glory; Arma Achillis, The arms of Achilles; Pàter patriæ, The father of the country; Vitium irve, The vice of anger; Němôrum custos, The guardian of the groves; Amor hábendi, Love of possessing,

Nore 1 In the first example, \$\delta mor\$ denotes love in general; \$gloria \text{ limits}\$ the affection to the particular object, glory. Such universally is the effect of the genitive, depending upon a noun. Hence the limitation of a noun by a genitive resembles that which is effected by an adjective. In each the noun limited constitutes with its limitation only a single idea.

REMARK 1. The genitive denotes various relations, the most common of which are those of $Source_i$ as, Rodii solis. The rays of the sun;— $Cavse_i$ as, $Dolor\ polargra$. The pain of the gont;—Effect; as, $Artifcx\ mundi$, The Creator of the world;— $Conn\ ection$: as, $Pater\ considis$, Tre father of the consult;—Possession; as, $Dolous\ Cossins$, The house of Cessar;— $Obj\ ect$; as $Cojt Catto \ dicijus\ rei$, A thought of something;—Purjose; as, Appairatus $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$, $Apatr \ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$; $Pars\ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$; $Pars\ triumphi$; Purjose; as, $Pars\ homisum$; $Pars\ triumphi$; Pa

of men; this is called the partitive genitive; - Character or Quality; as, Adolescens summa audācia, A youth of the greatest boldness ;-Material or Component Parts; as, Montes auri, Monntains of gold; Acerrus scutorum, A heap of shields; Time; as, Framentum dierum decem, Corn for ten days. Sall.

Rem. 2. The genitive is called subjective or active, when it denotes either that to which a thing belongs, or the subject of the action, feeling, etc., implied in the noun which it limits. It is called objective or passive, when it denotes the object affected by such action, or towards which such feeling is directed; as,

Subjective.

Objective.

Facta virorum, Deeds of men. Dölor ănimi, Grief of mind. Jūnonis īra, The anger of Juno.

Odium vitii, Hatred of vice. Amor virtūtis, Love of virtue. Desidérium ôtii, Desire of leisure.

(a.) Whether a genitive is subjective or objective is to be determined by the meaning of the words, and by their connection Thus, providentia Deisignifies God's providence, or that exercised by him timor Dei, the fear of God, or that exercised towards him. The same or similar words, in different connections, may express both significations. Thus, metus hostium, fear of the connections, may express ooth significations. Intis, metus hostium, fear of the enemy, may mean, either the fear felt by the enemy, or that felt by their opponents. So vulnus Ulizis (Virg. En. 2, 436.) denotes the wound which Ulysses had given; vulnus Enêze, (Id. En. 12, 323.) that which Eneas had received.

(b.) The relation expressed by the English possessive case is subjective, while that denoted by of with its case is either subjective or objective.

(c.) The objective genitive is of war extensive use in Latin in the Unitedition.

(c.) The objective genitive is of very extensive use in Latin in the limitation of verbal nouns and adjectives, whatever may be the construction of the verbs from which such nouns and adjectives are derived, whether they take an ac-

cusative or some other case or even a preposition.

(d.) When ambiguity would arise from the use of the objective genitive, a preposition with an accusative or ablative is commonly used; as, Amor in rempiblicam, for respiblica, Love to the state. Cic. Odium erga Römänos, for Römänorum. Nep. Cirva de sálite patrice, for sálitis. Cic. Predictor ce sécrir for sócirum. Sall. Sometimes both constructions are combined; as, Révirentia adversus homines et optimi cujusque et reliquorum. Cic. Off. 1, 28.

Note. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition, especially with vox, nomen, verbum, etc.; as, vox voluptātis, the word pleasure; nomen amīcītiæ, the word amīcītia; domīni appellātio. This is usual when the genus is defined by the species; as, arbor fict, a fig-trae; flos viòla, a violet; virtus continentiæ, the virtue of abstinence: and in geographical names; as, oppidum Antiochiæ. Cf. § 204, R. 6.-Cicero frequently uses a genitive in this manner with genus and causa; as, Unum genus est corum, qui, etc. Dua sunt causa, una pudoris, altera sceleris.—So, also, the genitive of gerunds; as, Triste est nomen ipsum carendi, The very word to want is sad. Cic.

Rem. 3. (a.) A substantive pronoun in the genitive, limiting the meaning of a noun, is commonly objective; as,

Cūra mei, Care for mc. Ovid. Pars tui, Part of thee. Id. Vestri cūram ăgite. Curt. This genitive is used especially with verbal substantives in or, ix and io; as, Accusator mei. Cic. Nimia estimatio sui. Id. Rationem et sui et aliorum habere. Id.

(b.) Instead of the subjective or possessive genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding adjective pronoun is commonly used; as,

Liber meus, not liber mei, my book. Cura mea, My care, i. e. the care exercised by me. Cic. Tuas literas exspecto. Id. Yet the subjective genitive of a substantive pronoun sometimes occurs; as, Tui ūnīus studio, By the zeul of yourself alone. Cic.

(c) And not unfrequently, also, an adjective pronoun occurs instead of the objective genitive; as, Mea injūria, Injury to me. Sall. So, Invidia tuc, Envy of thee. Fladicia tua, Confidence in thee. Plant. Spes mea, The hope placed in me. With causa the adjective pronoun, and never the genitive, is used as, Meā causā, For my sake. Plant.

Rem. 4. (a.) Instead, also, of the subjective genitive of a noun, a possessive adjective is often used; as, Causa regia, for causa regis. Cic. Herilis films, for her films. Id. Evandrius ensis, for Ecandri. Virg. Herculeus libor, for Herculeis, Hor. Civilis favor, for civium. Hor. So, also, for the objective genitive,

Metus hostīlis, Fear of the enemy. Sall.

(b.) The genitive of the person implied in the adjective pronoun or possessive adjective, or an adjective agreeing with such genitive, is sometimes added as an apposition; as, 'estra insorum causa hoc feci. In the poets and later prose writers a participle also is found agreeing with such implied genitive; as, Meascripte valgo réclière tinentis. Hor. Cf. § 204, R. 4, and § 205, R. 13.

Rem. 5. In the predicate after sum, and sometimes after other verbs, the dative is used like the objective genitive; as,

then amor exitium pēcorī (est.), pēcorīsme māgistro. Virg. Vitis ut arborībus dielevir est, ut vilibus ūrus—Tu dēcus omne tuis. Virg. In this passage the dative dēcorī and the nominative dēcus are used with no difference of meuning. Cf. § 227, R. 4. Auctor Jūi sēnātui. Cic. Murema lēgātus Lūcullo Jūit. Id. Erit ille mili semper deus. Virg. Huc causse patrōmas exstit. Cic. Haic ēgo me bello dācem profiteor. Id. Se tertium tesse) cui fātum forte urbis potīrī. Id.—Cum P. Afriction sēnātus ēgīt, ut līgātus fāturi profitescertur. Id. Cesar tētyimenta gāleis milites ex viminībus fācerē jābet. Cæs. Trinībamtībus Cesar timpērat—frimentum excertiui. Id. Quod nēgue instātus consuli procēdēbant. Sall. Quem exitum tantis mālis spērārent? Id. Sanctus vir et ex sententia ambūbus, seil qui fait. Id. See § 227, R. 4.

Note. The dative in the preceding examples has been thought by some grammarian to depend on the nouns connected with it; as, exitium, devas, auttor, legătus, dus, patrōnus, etc.; by others it has been held to depend on these nouns in connection with the verbs, and not upon either separately; but the better opinion seems to be that, which makes such datives grammatically dependent upon the verbs only, though logically connected also with the nouns.

(1.) Instead, also, of the possessive genitive, a dative of the person may follow a verb, when its act has relation to the body or possessions of such person; as,

Sese omnes flentes Casari ad pèdes prôjecerunt, They all, weeping, cast themselves at the feet of Casar. Cass. Out corpus porrigitur, For whom the body, i. e. whose body, is extended. Virg. Tum vero exarsit juveni delor ossibus ingens. Id. Transfigitur scatum Pulfioni. Cass.

Rem. 6. When the limiting noun denotes a property, character, or quality, it has an adjective agreeing with it, and is put either in the genitive or the ablative; as,

Vir exempli recti, A man of correct example. Liv. Adôlescens summa audācia, A youth of the greatest boldness. Sall. Fossa pēdum vijuht, A ditch of twenty feet, (i.e. in width). Cæs. Hamileur sicum ducci filium Hamibalem annörum növem. Nep. Athēnienses dēligam Pērielem, speciātæ virtūtis virum. Just. Quinquāginta amnārum repērium. H. Her minis dēi. Cic. Pulchritūdine extuniā fēmina, A womar of exquisite beauty. Cic. Maximo nātu filius, The eldest son. Nep. L. Cāttlīna fui magnā vi et ūnimi et corpōris, sed ingēnio mālo prāvojuc. Sall. Spēlauce infilintā altitūdine. Cic.—Sometimes both constructions occur in the same proposition; as, Lentūlum nostrum, eximiā spē, summae virtūtis ādōlescentem. Cic.

(1.) A genitive sometimes supplies the place of the adjective; and the noun denoting the property, etc., is then always put in the ablative; as, Est bestervi figürā,...of the form of a stag. Cas. Uri spēcie et cölöre tauri. Id. Früter palmi altituthe. Plin. Clāri digiti politicis crassituthe. Cas.

(2.) All t_e qualities and attributes of persons and things, whether inherent or accidental, may be thus expressed by the genitive and ablative of quality, provided the substantives are immediately connected; as, fossa quindictin pédun; homo antiquá viriate. It hence follows that such genitives and ablatives, when used to express duration of time or extent of space, are distinguished from the cases in which the accusative is required, since the latter case always follows adjectives or verbs; as, fossa quindécim pèdes lâta: puer dècem annos natus. Cf. § 236.

(3.) Whether the genitive or the ablative of quality is preferable in particular cases, can frequently be determined only by reference to classical authority; but, in general, the genitive is used more frequently to express inherent qualities than such as are merely accidental, while the ablative is used indifferently for either purpose. In speaking of transitory qualities or conditions the ablative is always used; as, Magno limbre sum, I am in great fear. Cic. Bino dutino sum. Id. Quanto fairin dollar melanisti. Id. Maximo hobine Servius Tulkius èrat. Liv. With plural substantives the genitive is rare; while in expressions of measure it is used rather than the ablative.

(4) An accusative instead of a genitive of quality is used with scens (sex), genus and pondo; as, Libérōrum cópitum virile sécus ad décem millia capta, i. e. of the male sex, instead of sexus virilis. Liv. So génus, when joined with a pronoun, as hoc, id, illud, quod, or with omne, is used for hājus, gius, omnis, etc., généris; as, Orditions and tâlquid id genus scribére,—of that kind. Cic. Omec-dère naquas hoc genus. Hor. So pondo is joined as an indeclinable word to the accusatives libram and libras; as, Dictitor córōnam auream libram pondo in Câpitolio Joi doaum posuit,...a pound in weight. Liv. Cf. § 236, R. 7.

(5.) The genitive môdi with an adjective pronoun supplies the place of a pronoun of quality; as, cũjusmôdi libri, the same as quāles libri, what kind of books; hājusmôdi libri, i. e. tāles libri, such books. So, also, gēmēris is used,

but less frequently.

(6.) With the genitive of measure are often connected such ablatives as longitudine, lätitudine, etc., or in longitudinem, etc.; as, fossa dècem pèdum lätitudine; but the genitive does not depend on these words.

(7.) Sum may be followed by either the genitive or the ablative of quality with an ellipsis of the word limited, which, with the genitive, is homo, res, negotium, proprium or proprius, etc., and with the ablative, præditus, instructus, ornātus, etc. Cf. Rem. 8, and §§ 244, and 249, I..

REM. 7. (1.) The limited noun is sometimes omitted; as, O miséræ sortis! scil. hómines; O (men) of wretched fortune! Lucan. Ad Diāna, scil. adem. Ter. Hectóris Audrómáche, scil. uzor. Virg. Suspiciónis vitandæ, scil. causā. Tac. So filius or filia; as, Hannibal Gisgōnis.

(2.) The omitted noun may sometimes be supplied from the preceding words; as, Cigium pècus? an Mèlbei? Non; vērum Ægônis, seil. pècus. Virg. An adjective is often expressed referring to the noun omitted; as, Nullam virtus zliam mercèdem désiderut, præter hanc (seil. mercèdem) laudis. Cic.

REM. 8. The limited noun is often wanting in the predicate of a sentence after sum. This usually happens,

(1.) When it has been previously expressed; as,

Hac dómus est Cesáris, This house is Cæsur's. Nomen curve tam sæpe vócātum esse pūtans Nymphæ. Ovid. Nāves ónērārias, quār un minor nulla ērat daum vailium amphörum, i. e. quārum minor nulla ērat quam 1 āvis daum, etc. Cic.

(2.) When it is a general word denoting a person, an animal, etc. as,

Thūcūdides, qui ejusdem ætātis fuit, scil. homo, Thucydides, who was of the same age. Nep. Multum ei detraxit, quod alienæ erat civitatis, scil. homo or civis Id. Primum stipendium méruit annôrum décem septemque, scil. adôlescens. Id. Summi ut sint liboris efficiunt, scil. animālia. Cæs. (Claudius) somni brēvissimi Bahma ta san Morr's Green, Schr. Land in green ingénio mobili érat. Sall. Non est juris sui, He is not his own master. Lucan. Pôtestátis suæ esse. Liv. Bahranque rérum érant. 1d. Cf. Ren. 6, (7.)

(3.) When it is a general word denoting thing, for which, in Eng lish, the words part, property, duty, office, business, characteristic, etc.

are commonly supplied; as,

Těměritus est florentis ætātis, prūdentia sēnectūtis, Rashness is (the characteristic) of youth, prudence of old age. Cic. Est hoc Gallice consuctudinis. Cas. So, stultitue est ; est l'eritatis, etc., which are equivalent to stultatia est, l'evitas est. Omnia hostium érant. A paucis émi, quod multorum esset. Sall.

(a.) This happens especially when the subject of the verb is an infinitive, or an entire clause, in which case, instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns, mei, tui, etc., the neuters of the possessives, meum, tuum, etc., are used; as, Adolescentis est majores natu reverere. It is (the duty) of a youth to reverence the aged. Ovid. Cajuscis hominis est errare, nullius misi insipientis in errore persévérère. Cic. Paupéris est nămérăre pécus. Ovid. So especially môris est; as, Negăvit môris esse Græcōrum, ut în convicio virorum accumbérent mulières, the as, regueu not sees Greeorum. Cic. Nhil tun wquandw libertatis esse. Liv. So when the verb is omitted; Tamen officii duxil, exòrire patrem, scil, esse. Suet. Not est mentir ineum. Ter. Tuum est, M. Coto, videre quid âgatur.

(b.) Instead of the genitive of a substantive, also, the neuter of a possessive adjective derived from it is sometimes used; as, Humanum est errare, To err

is human. Ter. Et facere et păti fortia Romanum est. Liv.

(4.) The same construction sometimes occurs after făcio, and some other verbs mentioned in § 230, esse being understood; as, Asia Romanorum facta est, Asia became (a possession) of the Romans. Just. Agrum sua ditionis fecisse.

(5.) The limited noun is sometimes wanting, when it is a general word, though not in the predicate after sum; as, Magni formica laboris, scil. animal, The ant (an animal) of great labor. Hor. So Li venit in mentem potestatis tuce scil. měmoria, or the like. Cic.

Note. When the noun which is wanting denotes a thing, grammarians sometimes supply něgötium, off icium, mūnus, ŏpus, res, causa, etc. It is an instance of a construction common in Latin, to omit a noun when a general idea is intended. See § 205 Rem. 7, (2.)

Rem. 9. The limiting noun also is sometimes omitted; as,

Tria millia, scil. passuum. In most cases of this kind, an al'iective, adjective pronoun, or participle, is expressed in the genitive.

Rem. 10. Two genitives sometimes limit the same noun, one of which is commonly subjective, and the other objective; as,

Agămemnonis belli gloria, Agamemnon's glory în war. Nep. Illius adminis trătio provincia. Cic. Enum dierum consuctudine itineris nostri exercitus perspectă. Cas. Orbitas reipāblica tālium vīrorum. Cic. Pro vētērībus Helvētič rum injūriis populi Romani. Cæs.

Rem. 11. Opus and ūsus are rarely limited by a genitive or accusative, but generally by an ablative, of the thing needed; as,

Argenti opus fuit, There was need of money. Liv. Ad consilium pensandum temporis opus esse. Id. Procemii non scoper usus est. Quint. Si quo operse sorum usus est. Liv. Puero opus est cibum. Plaut. Usus est heminem astutum. Id. See § 243.

REM. 12 The relation denoted by the genitive in Latin, is generally expressed, in Eng ish, by of, or by the possessive case. Cf. R. 2, (b.) The objective genitive may often be rendered by some other preposition; as,

Rěmědium dôlôris, A remedy for pain. Injūria patris, Injury to a father. Descensus Averni, The descent to Avernus. Ira belli, Anger on account of the war. Pôtestas rei, Power in or over a thing.

Note. Certain limitations of nouns are made by the accusative with a preposition, and by the ablative, either with or without a preposition. Cf. § 202, 6, I. and II.

GENITIVE AFTER PARTITIVES.

§ 212. Nouns, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and adverbs, denoting a part, are followed by a genitive denoting the whole; as,

Pars civitātis, A part of the state. Nulla sörörum, No one of the sisters. Aliquis philosopherum, Some one of the philosophers. Quis mortālium? Who of mortals? Major piermum, The elder of the youths. Doctsismus Römänörum, The most learned of the Romans. Multum pēcūnies, Much (of) money. Sātis elõquenita, Enough of eloquence. Übinam gentium sümus? Where on earth are we?

Note. The genitive thus governed denotes either a number, of which the partitive designates one or more individuals; or a whole, of which the partitive designates a portion. In the latter sense, the genitive of common and abstract nouns commonly follows either the neuter of adjectives and adjective pronouns, or adverbs; and that of material nouns depends on substantives signifying quantity, weight or measure; as, medimnum tritici, a bushel of wheat; libra farris; jagrum agri; magna vis auri.

REMARK 1. Nouns denoting a part are pars, němo, něhů, etc., and also nouns denoting measure, weight, etc.; as, mědius, mědimnum, and libra; as,

Nēmo nostrum, No one of us. Maxima pars hŏmīnum. Nihil hūmānārun rērum. Cic. Dīmīdium militum. Liv. Mēdimnum trītīci. Cic.

- REM. 2. Adjectives and adjective pronouns, denoting a part of a number, including partitives and words used partitively, comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, are followed by the genitive plural, or by the genitive singular of a collective noun.
- (1.) Partitives (§104, 9.); as, ullus, aullus, sõlus, älius, üter, üterque, ütercumque, üterris, üterlibet, neuter, alter, altörüter, üliquis, quidam, quispum, quisquis, quisque, quisquam, quicumque, ünusquisque, quis ? qui? qui? qui? quis? quidus? quiduspuisque? tõt, aliquot, nomuult, plerique, multi, pauci, meldus. Thus, Quisquis debrum, Whoever of the gods. Ovid. Consilum alter, One of the consuls. Liv. Multi kominum, Many men. Plin. £t mēdius jūrēnum tõut; i.e. between. Ovid. For the gender of adjectives used partitively, see § 205, R. 12.

(2.) Words used partitively; as, Expéditi militum, The light-armed (of the) soldiers. Liv. Délecti équitum. Id. Vétéres Römánörum dácum. Vell. Süpéri deörum, The gods above. Hor. Sancte deörum. Virg. Degenéres cánum. Pila. Piscium fémina. Id.

a second jemene. 14

(3.) Comparatives and superlatives; as, Doctior jūrėnum. Orātorum prastantissimus. Elóquentissimus Romonorum. Optimus cannium.

(4) Numerals, both cardinal and ordinal; also the distributive singuli; as, Equitura centum quinquaginta interfecti, A hundred and fifty of the horsemen were killed. Curt. Siptentum octavus. Hor. Singulos restrum. Curt. (6.) The meaning is often nearly the same, whether the rartitive adjective agrees in case and number with a noun, or takes such noun after it a the genitive; as, Dottissims Römänörum, or, doctsismus Römänörus: Alter consid m, or alter consid. But the genitive cannot be used, when the adjective includes the s.me number of things as that of which the whole consists; as, Vēniāmus ad vīvos, qui duo sūpersunt; not quōrum duo, since these are all, though we say in English, 'of whom two survive.'

Note 1. (a.) The comparative with the genitive denotes one of two individuals or classes; the superlative denotes a part of a number greater than two; as, Major frātrum, The elder of two brothers. Maximus frātrum, The eldest of three or more.

(b.) In like manner, *iter*, alter, and neuter, generally refer to two; quie, *ălius*, and nullus, to a whole consisting of more than two; as, Uter nostrum? Which

of us (two?) Quis vestrum? Which of you (three or more?)

Note 2. Nostrum and vestrum are used as partitive genitives, in preference to nostri and vestri, and are always joined with omnium even when the genitive is a subjective one; as, Patria, que commanis est omnium nostrum parens. Cic. But vestrum sometimes occurs in other connections also without a partitive meaning; as, Quis èrit tem căpidus vestrum. Cic.

Note 3. The partitive word is sometimes omitted; as, Fies nobilium tu quo-

que fontium, scil. unus. Hor. Centies sestertium, scil. centena millia.

Note 4. The noun denoting the whole, after a partitive word, is often put in the ablative, with the prepositions de, e, e, e, or in, or in the accusative, with d padd or inter; as, N' on d eiis. Alter ex censorius. Liv. U cas ex multis. Cit. A cerrimus ex sensibus. Id. T hales, q ui sapientissimus in septem f uit. Id. P rimus inter omnes. Virg. C resus inter reges opulentissimus. Sen. Apud Helvettos nobilissimus.

Note 5. The whole and its parts are frequently placed in apposition, distributively; as, interfectores, pars in förum, pars Syrācāsas pergunt. Liv. See § 204, R. 10.

Note 6. Cuncti and omnes, like partitives, are sometimes followed by a gentive plural; as, Attālus Mācedonum fére omnībus persuāsit, Attālus persuaded almost all the Macedonians. Liv. Cunctes hominum. Ovid. Cunctas provinciārum. Plin.

Note 7. In the following passage, the genitive singular seems to be used like that of a collective noun: Totus autem injustitie nulla capitalior est, etc. Cic. Off. 1, 13. The phrase Rem nullo modolo probabilem onnium (Cic. Nat. Deor. 1, 27), seems to be used for Rem nullo onvaum modorum probabilem.

REM. 3. The genitive denoting a whole, may depend on a neuter adjective or adjective pronoun. With these the genitive singular is commonly used; as,

Plus èlòquentia, More (of) eloquence. Tuntum fidei, So much fidelity. la tempòris, That time. Ad hoc addis. Sometimes the genitive plural; as, Id misòriarum. Ter. Armòrum quantum. Cass.

Nors 1. (a.) Most nenter adjectives used partitively denote quantity, as, tentum, quantum, plia, minus, minimum, diminimum, miliam, minimum, diminimum, miliam, minimum, reliquium; with the compounds and diminimitives, varidium, tentundem, quantilum, quantilumerumque, etc.; to which add médium, summum, utinum, divid, etc. The pronours thus used are loc, id, illud, istud, idem, quad, and quid, with their compounds, d'Iquid, quidquid, quippium, quidquam, quadcumque.

(b.) Most of these adjectives and pronouns may either agree with their nouns, or take a genitive; but the latter is more common. Tuntum, quantum, stipuantum, and plus, when they denote quantity, are used with a genitive only, as are also quid and its compounds, when they denote a part, sort, etc., and quid in the sense of quantum. Thus, Quantum crivit Nilus, tuntum spni in securing etc. Sen. Quid mulieris uzorem holes? What kind of a woman... Ter.

Altquid formæ. Cic. Quia hoc rei est? What does this mean? Ter. Quod auri, quod argenti, quod ornāmentōrum fuit, id Verres abstūlit.

NOTE 2. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, when followed by a genitive, are to be accounted substantives, and in this construction are found only in the

nominative and accusative.

Note 3. Sometimes the genitive after these adjectives and pronouns is a neuter adjective, of the second declension, without a noun; as, Tantum boni, So much good. Si quid habes novi, If you have any thing new. Cic. Quid reliqui est? Ter. Nihil is also used with such a genitive; as, Nihil sinceri, No sincerity. Cic. This construction occurs very rarely with neuter adjectives in

of the third decleusion, and only in connection with neuters of the second decleusion; as, Si quidquam non dico civilis sed humani esset. Liv.

Note 4. In the poets and in the prose writers later than Cicero, neuter adjectives in the plural number are sometimes followed by a genitive, either singular or plural, with a partitive signification; as, Extrêma impérii, The frontiers of the empire. Tac. Pontes et viārum angusta, The bridges and the narrow parts of the roads. Id. Opéaa löcörum. Virg. Antiqua fodérum. Liv Cuncta campõrum. Tac. Exercent colles, atque hõrum asperrima pascunt. Virg. Cf. § 205, R. 9.

REM. 4. The adverbs săt, sătis, părum, nimis, ăbunde, largiter, aditim, and partim, used partitively, are often followed by a genitive; as,

Sat rătionis, Enough of reason. Virg. Sătis elôquentiæ, părum săpientiæ, Enough of eloquence, (yet) but little wisdom. Sall. Nimis insidărum. Gic. Tervivis et fraudis abunde est. Virg. Auri et argenti largiter. Plant. Copiârum affătim. Liv. Quum partim illorum mihi fămiliărissimi essent. Cic.

NOTE 1. The above words, though generally adverbs, seem, in this use, rather to be nouns or adjectives.

Nore 2. (a.) The genitives gentium, terrârum, bei, and bloorum, with certain adverbs of place, strengthen their meaning; as, Usquam terrârum. Just. Usquam gentium, Any where whatever. Plaut. Ubi terrârum samus? Where in the world are we? Cic. Abire quo terrârum posseut. Liv. Ubi sit bei. Plin. Eo loci, equivalent to co beo, In that place. Tac. Eodem beir res est. Cic. Nestre quo loci esset. Id. But the last three examples might perhaps more properly be referred to Rem. 3.

(6.) The adverbs of place thus used are ūbi, ūbinom, ūbicumque, ūbiūbi, ūbivie, ubique, unde, usquam, nusquam, quo, quōcumque, quōris, quoquo, ciliquo, hic, hic, eo, eōdem. Lôci also occurs after ibi and ibidem; genitum after longe; as, lb lòci, In that place. Plin. Abes longe gentium. Cic. So, minime gentum, By no means. Ter. Vicinie in the genitive is used by the comic writers after hic and huc; as, Hic proxime ricinie. Plant. Hac vicinie. Ter. Cf. § 221, R. 3, (4.)

Nore 3. Huc, eo, quo, when used figuratively to express a degree, are joined also with other genitives; as, Eo insõlentiæ fürērisque prōcessit, He advanced to such a degree of insolence and madness. Plin. Huc ètain maiorum rentum est. Curt. Hucche rērum eźniewa? Have we come to this? Pers. Eo misētiā. Liv. rum eźnier, To such a pitch of misery. Sall. Quo âmentiæ prōgressi sitis. Liv.

Note 4. The genitives loci, locorum, and temporis, appear to be redundant after the adverbs adhue, inde, interea, posteo, tum, and tune, in expressions denoting time; as, Adhue blocorum, Till now. Plaut. Inde loci, After that. Lucr. Interea Sci, In the mean time. Ter. Posteo loci, Afterwards. Sall. Tum temporis, and tum temporis, At that time. Just. Locorum also occurs after id, denoting time; as, Ad id locorum, Up to that time. Sall. Cf. R. 3.

Note 5. When the genitive ijus occurs after quoad, in such connections as the following: Quoad ijus fācēre pōtēris. Cic.; or passively, Quoad ijus fāra vosstt, As far as may be. Cic.; the ijus refers to the preceding clause; hterally as much of it as possible.

Note 6. Pridie and postridie, though reckoned adverbs, are followed by a genitive, depending on the noun dies contained in them; as, Pridie ipis die; lit. On the day before that day, i.e. The day before. Cic. Pridie insidiarum, The day before the ambush. Tac. Postridie ipius diei, The next day. Cas. When they are followed by an accusative, ante or post is understood. Cf. § 238, 1, 63.

Note 7. Adverbs in the superlative degree, like their adjectives, are follow-

ed by a genitive; as, Optime omnium, Bost of all. Cic.

GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

§ 213. A noun, limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the objective genitive, to denote the relation expressed in English by of, in, or in respect to; as,

Aridus landis, Desirous of praise.

Appêteus glóriæ, Eager for glory.

Mêmor virtütis, Minditul of virtue.

Doctus fandi, Skifful in speaking.

So, Nescia mens fāti, The mind ignorant in regard to fate. Virg. Impôtems træ, lit. Powerless in respect to anger, i. e. unable to control it. Liv. Hômines expertes vérifātis, Men destitute of truth. Gic. Lactis ábundans, Abounding in milk. Virg. Terra férax arbörum, Land productive of trees. Plin. Ténax prôpôstit vir. A man tenacious of his purpose. Hor. Æger minni, Sick in mind. Liv. Lòcus médius jūgūli summique lücerti, i. e. between. Ovid. Môrum diversus. Tac. Opèrum sòldus. Hor. Liber löbörum. Id. Intéger vitæ scēlērisque pūrus, Upright in life, and free from wickedness. Hor. Vini pollens Liber. Plaut.

From the above examples, it will be seen that the genitive after an adjective is sometimes translated by other words besides of, in, or in respect to, though the relation which it denotes remains the same. Cf. 211, R. 12.

REMARK 1. The following classes of adjectives, which, as denoting a relation to a thing, are called relative adjectives (§ 104, 13), are frequently limited by a genitive; viz. (1.) Verbals in ax; as, copax, constant for the compounds; as, amans, applicus, cipicus, etc.—(2.) Participials in ns, and a few in tus, with their compounds; as, amans, applicus, cipicus, efficiens, policus, impotiens, stitus;—consultus, doctus, solitus,—(3.) Adjectives denoting desire or aversion; as, advirus, cividus, cipicus, stidious; fistaldious:—participation; as, particeps, affinis, consors, exzors, expers, tnops:—knowledge, experience, capacty, and their contraires; as, callulus, compos, conscius, grains, indirus, perious, imperitus, impos, potens, impotens, prindens, imprindens, expertus, inexpertus, as, certus, incertus, incollus, impotens, prindens, imprindens, expertus, incerpertus, as, certus, incertus, ambignus, dibius, suspensus:—care and negligence; as, aszeius, sollicitus, providus, imprindus, securus —fear and confidence, as, prividus, timidus, trépidus, imprindus, fidens, interritus:—quilt and inno cence; as, noaxius, reus, suspectus, compertus, manifestus, innocius, innocens, insons—plenty and want; as, doundous, plenus, dies, sidus, largus, inope, signus indires, propertus, maintiposa, innocens, insons—plenty and want; as, doundous, plenus, dies, sidus, largus, inope, signus indires, parter, solitus, propertus, maintiposa, dies, sidus, largus, inope, signus indires, parter, parters, solitus, vacuus.

(a.) In the poets and later prose writers, many other adjectives, particularly those which express mental emotions, are in like manner limited by a genitive, especially by anima, ingenii, mentis, irve, militiee, belli, luboris, rerum, wor, fitture,

morum, and fidei.

REM. 2. The limiting genitive, by a Greek construction, sometimes denotes a cause or source, especially in the poets; as, Lassus maris, et viarum, militiæque. Hor. Fessus via. Stat. Fessus maris. Hor. Attonitus serpentis. Sil. Mens interritu leti. Ovid.

REM. 3. Participles in us, when used as such, take after them the same case as the verbs from which they are derived; as, Se amans, Loving timself. Cio Mare terram appatens. Id.

REM. 4. Instead of the genitive, denoting of, in, or in respect to. a different construction is sometimes used after many of these adjectives; as,

(1.) An infinitive or a subjunctive clause; as, Certus îre, Determined to ga. Ovid. Cantare pērīti. Virg. Fēlīcior unguere tēla. Id. Anxius quid facte ópus sit. Sall. Vire memor quam sis ævi brevis. Hor.—So álienus, ávidus, callidus, cápidus, firmus, fréquens, gnārus, impôtens, inops, lætus, largus, liber,

pollens, memor, dubius, etc.

(2.) An accusative with a preposition; as, Adrem ăridior. Ter. Aridus in direptiones. Liv. Animus căpar ad pracepta. Ovid. Ad căsum fortunamyar felix. Cic. Ad frauden calidus. Id. Ditigens ad custodiendum. Id. Negliqentior in patrem. Just. Vir ad disciplinam pērītus. Cic. Ad bella rūdis. Liv. Potens in res bellīcas. Id. Alācer ad malēfīcia. Cic. Inter bellum et pācem nihil midium est. Id .- So with ad, fertilis, firmus, infirmus, potens, sterilis, etc .with in, cupidus, parcus, poiens, prodigus, etc.

(3.) An accusative without a preposition, chiefly in the poets; as, Nadus minuta, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os, hümērosque deo similis Id. Cētēra fulus. Hor. Cuncta politas. Sen. Ag. See 234, II.

- (4.) An ablative with a preposition; as, Avidus in pecuniis, Eager in regaril to money. Cic. Anxins de famă. Quint. Rădis în jūre civili. Ĉic. Pêri-tus de agricultur Varr. Pridens în jure civili. Ĉic. Reus de vi. Id. Părus ab cultu hămâno. Liv. Certior factus de re. Cic. Sollicitus de re. Id. Sūper scelere suspectus. Sall. Inoys ab âmīcis. Ĉic. Pauper în ære. Hor. Modicus in cultu. Plin. Ab âquis stérilis. Apul. Côpiosus a frümento. Ĉic. Ab êquitătu firmus. Id. So with in, immödicus, parcus, über:—with ab, ălienus, beālus, extorris, immūnis, inops, liber, nūdus, orbus, vācuus.
- (5.) An ablative without a preposition; as, Arte rudis, Rude in art. Ovid. Regni crimine insons. Liv. Compos mente. Virg. Prudens consilio. Just. Æger pedibus. Sall. Præstans ingenio. Cic. Modicus severitate. Tac. Nihil insidiis văcuum. Cic. Amor et melle et felle est f ecundissimus. Plant. Medius Polluce et Castore. Ovid. Cf. Rem. 5.

In many instances, the signification of the accusative and ablative after adjectives differs, in a greater or less degree, from that of the genitive.

Rem. 5. As many of the adjectives, which are followed by a genitive, admit of other constructions, the most common use of each, with particular nouns, can, in general, be determined only by recourse to the dictionary, or to the classics. Some have,

 The genitive only; as, běnignus, căpax, exsors, impos, impôtens, insătiābilis, irritus, liberālis, modicus, mūnificus, prælargus, and many others.

- (2.) The genitive more frequently; as, compos, consors, ěgēnus, exheres, serpers, fertilis, indigus, inops, parcus, particeps, pauper, prodigus, prosper, sterilis.
- (3.) The genitive or ablative indifferently; as, dives, fecundus, ferax, immūnis, inānis, immodicus, jējūnus, largus, nimius, opūlentus, pērītus, plēnus, po-tens, pūrus, rēfertus, satur, ūber, rācuus.
- The ablative more frequently; as, abundans, alienus, cassus, copiosus, outrris, firmus, fētus, frēquens, grāvīdus, grāvis, infirmus, līber, locuples, lætus, muctus, nūdus, onustus, orbus, pollens, sātiātus, truncus, vālidus, viduus.
 - (5.) The ablative only; as, beātus, crēber, densus, mūtīlus, tūmīdus, turgidus.

For the ablative after many of the preceding adjectives, see § 250.

REM. 6. Some adjectives usually limited by a dative, sometimes take a genitive instead of the dative; as, similis, dissimilis, etc. See § 222, R. 2.

REM. 7. Many adjectives in addition to the genitive or ablative denoting of or in respect to, take also another case to express a different relation; as, Mens sibi conscia recti. Cf. § 222, R. 3. Conscius has also sometimes the dative instead of the genitive of the thing; as, conscius huic facinori. Cic.

GENITIVE AFTER VERBS

§ 214. Sum, and verbs of valuing, are followed by a genitive, denoting degree of estimation; as,

A me argentum, quanti est, sămito, Take of me so much money as (he) is worth. Ter. Magni astimābat pēcāniam, He valued money greatly. Cic. Ager munc plūris est, quam tunc fuit. Id. Tanti est, It is worth so much; and, absolutely, It is worth while. Cic. Hūjus non fācio, I don't care that for it.

RYMARK 1. (a.) Verbs of valuing are joined with the genitive, when the value is expressed in a general or indefinite manner by:—

- (1.) A neuter adjective of quantity; as, tanti, quanti, plairis, minoris, magni, permagni, plairini, maximi, minimi; parvi, tantiden, quanticumque, quantivis, quantitute, but only very rarely multi and migira.
- (2.) The nouns assis, flocci, nauci, nihili, pili, teruncii, and also pensi and hūjus.
- (b.) But if the price or value of a thing is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantice, other than assis, flocci, etc., it is put in the ablative. Cf. § 252.
- REM. 2. The verbs of valuing are estimo, existimo, daco, facio, fio, habbo, pendo, pâto, depâto, tazo. Thus, Ul quanti quisque se ipse făciat, tanti fiat ab âmicis, That as much as each one values himself, so much he should be valued by his friends. Cic. Sed quae parvi id dacêret. Id. Honôres si magni non pâtêmus. Id. Non assis facis f Catull. Nêque quod dux, flocci existimat. Plant.
- Note 1. (a.) The phrase equi bōni, or œqui bōnique f'acio, or consilo, I take a thing in good part, am satisfied with it, may be classed with genitives of value; as, Nos œqui bōnique f'acinus. Liv. So, Bōni consiluit Plin.—(b.) A genitive of price is joined also to cœno, hābīto, dōceo, etc.; as, quanti hābītas i what rent do you pay for your house or lodging? quanti dōcet? what are his terms in teaching?
- Note 2. After æstimo, the ablatives magno, permagno, parro, nihilo, are sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, Dita magno æstimas, accepta parvo. Sen. Pro nihilo, also, occurs after dico, hābeo, and pito; and nihil with æstimo and moror. Cf. § 231, R. 5.
- Nore 3. The neuter adjectives above enumerated, and highes, may be referred to a noun understood, as prétii, œris, pondéris, mômenti; and may be considered as limiting a preceding noun, also understood, and denoting some person or thing; as, £stimo te magni, i. e. hôminem magni prétii. Scio éjus ordinis auctôritâten semper paul te magni fuises, i. e. rem magni mômenti. The words 48sis, etc., may also be considered as depending on an omitted noun; as, prétio, rex., etc.
- REM. 3. Statements of price, also, when general or indefinite, are put in the genitive after verbs of buying, selling, letting, and hiring, as,

Mercătores non tantidem vendunt, quanti émérunt. Cic. Nulla pestis hūmāno genēri plūris stétit, quam ira. Sen.

NOTE 1. Verbs of buying, selling, etc., are emo, vendo, the neutral passive, veneo, consto, prosto, and liceo, to be exposed for sale.

Nore 2. With verbs of buying, selling, etc., the ablatives magno, permagno, plavimo, parco, minimo, and nihilo are often used instead of the genitive; as, Non polest parvo res magna constaire. Sen. Quanti emère possum minimo? What is the lowest price I can buy at? Plaut. Sometimes also the adverbs cère bêne, and malte taks the place of the genitive or ablative of price.

§ 215. (1.) Misĕreor, misĕresco, and me impersonals misĕret, pænĭtet, püdet, tædet, and pĭget, are followed by a genitive of the object in respect to which the feeling is exercised; as,

Misérémini sociorum, Pity the allies. Cic. Misérescite régis, Pity the king. Virg. Mea maîter, tui me miséret, mei piget, I pity you, and am dissatisfied with myself. Acc. Eos Ineptiarum penitet. Cic. Fratris me pudet pigetque. Ter. Me civilatis morum piget tedetque. Sall. So the compound distedet; Hund quad tui me, néque doin distedet. Plant; and the passive; Numquam suscepti négotii elum pertesum est. Nep. Lentitudinis ebrum pertessa. Tuc. Miséritum est me tuàrum fortunarum. Ter. Câne te fratrum miséretur. Cic. Padet (me) deörum hominumque, I am filled with shame in reference both to gode and men. Liv.

Note 1. Misèrescit is sometimes used in the same manner as misèret; as, Nune te misèrescut mei. Ter. Misèreo, as a personal verb, also, occurs with a genitive; as, Ipse sui misèret. Lucr.

REMARK. The genitive after the above impersonals seems to depend on some general word constituting the grammatical subject of such verbs, and signifying, matter, business, fuel, case, circumstances, conduct, character, etc., cf § 21, R. 8, (3); and § 209, R. 3, (4.) Instead of the genitive with its omitted noun, an infinitive or clause with quod or with an interrogative particle is sometimes used as a subject; as, Non me hoc jum dicere publicit. Cic. Non pentite me quantum profecerim, I am not disastisfied with my progress. Id. These verbs have also sometimes a noninative; as, Me quidem hac conditio non pentitet. Plant. Non te here piddent? Ter.

NOTE 2. Missiret occurs with an accusative of the object, instead of a genitive; as, Minidem vicem missiret me. Ter. So, also, Pertasus ignāviam suum. Suet.

Norg 3. (a.) These impersonals, as active verbs, take also an accusative of the person exercising the feeling which they express. Se § 229, R. 6.— (b.) And sometimes also the accusative of the neuter pronouns and of nikil, denoting to what degree the feelings are exercised; as, Sequitur ut mini (sipientem,) proutent. Cic. Cf. § 232, (3.)

(2.) Sătăgo is sometimes followed by a genitive denoting in what respect; as,

Is stitigit rerum suārum, He is busily occupied with his own affairs. Ter. This compound is often written separately, and in either case the genitive seems to depend upon sat. See § 212, R. 4. Agito, with sāt, in like manner, is followed by a genitive; as, Nunc āgitas sat tūte tuārum rērum. Plaut.

§ 216. Rěcordor, měmini, rěminiscor, and obliviscor, are followed by a genitive or accusative of the object remembered of forgotten; as,

Flägitiörum suörum récordábítur. Cic. Omnes grádus ætátis récordor tuæ, I cull to mind all the periods of your life. Id. Měntní vívôrum, I am mindful of the living. Id. Nüméros měnňu, I remember the measure. Virg. Keiminsci vítóris fámne. Nep. Dulces môriens réminiscitur Argos, Virg. Réminisci amicos, Ovid. Oblius sni. Virg. Injūriārum obliviscitur. Nep. Obliviscor injūrias. Cic. Obliviscor Graios. Virg.

REMAIK I. (a.) When the thing remembered or forgotten is expressed by a neuter pronoun or adjective, it is always put in the accusative. An accusative of the person with these verbs is unusual, except that mēmini, when referring to a contemporary always takes an accusative of the person; as, Cinnam mēmini. Cic.

(b.) An infinitive or a dependent clause sometimes follows these verbs; as Mêmento mihi suppétios ferre. Plant. Esse quoque in faits réminiscitur, affontempus, quo mâre, etc. Ovid. Obliti quid décea Hor. Mêmini te scribère Cic. Que sum passûra récordor. Ovid.

Rem. 2. Récordor and mémini, to remember, are sometimes followed by a ablative with de; as, Pétimus ut de suis libéris récordentur. Cic. De pallà memento. Plant.

REM. 3. Měmini, signifying to make mention of, has a genitive, or an abla tive with de; us, Nêque hâjus rei mêmini, poèta. Quint. Mêministi de exstill bus. Cic. With vênd mihi in menten, the person or thing may be made the subject of vênit; as, Misère this vênit in mentem mortis mêtus. Plant. Vênit hou mihi in menten; or an infinitive or subjunctive clause may supply the place of the subject:—for the genitive with this phrase, as in Sôlet mihi in menten venire illius tempôris, see § 211, R. 8, (6.) The genitive with récordor is very rare.

§ 217. Verbs of accusing, convicting, condemning, and acquitting, with the accusative of the person, are followed by genitive denoting the crime; as,

Arguit me furti, He charges me with theft. Alterum accusat probri, He ac cuses another of villany. Meipsum inertiæ condemno. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) To this rule belong the verbs of

A censing; acciso, ago, arcesso, arguo, cito, deféro, inceiso, incimilo postilo, and more rarely alligo, angairo, astringo, capto, increpito, urgeo, metrogo, rema ago or fácio, alicai diem dico, cum diquo igo.—Convicting; convinco, courguo, prehendo, têneor, obstringor, obligor.—Con de mning; damno, com demno, infiano, and more rarely júdio, nido, plector.—A cquitting; absolvo, libiro, purgo, and rarely solvo. To the verbs of accusing, etc., may be added the adjectives denoting guilt and innocence, which likewise take a genitive. Cf. § 213, R. 1, (3.)

(b.) The genitives which follow these verbs are, audācia, ārārītia, cadīs, fulsi, furti, ipnāvie, impirtātis, injariorum, letitātis, mājestātis, mālefrei, mendācii, purricīdii, peccāti, predatātis, probri, proditīonis, rei cāpitālis, rēpētundārum, sceleris, stultītue, temeritātis, timoris, canītātis, reinfrei, etc.

REM. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, an ablative with de is often used after acciss, differ, anapiro, argue, postish, damae, condemne, absolve, and purpo; as, Accisaire de negligentia. Cic. De vi condemnati sunt. Id. De rèpétundis est postilations. Id. Sometimes with in, after acciso, coargue, convince, téneor, and dépréhendor; as, In quo te acciso (Cic.); and after libèro, with a or ab; as, A scèl re libèroit simus. Cic. Acciso and domno with inter occur in the phrases inter sicários accusaire, etc., to charge with assassimation.

(b.) With some of the above verbs, an ablative without a preposition is often used; as, Libërāre culpā. Cic. Crimen quo argui posset. Nep. Proconsile postalivērat rēpētumdis. Tac. This happens especially with general words denoting crime; as, scélus, molléficium, peccâtum, etc.; as, Me peccâto solvo. Liv. The ablatives crimine and monine, without a preposition, are often inserted before the genitive; as, Arccasere alquem crimine ambitis. Liv. Nomine scéleris conjurationisque damnāti. Cic.; and when not sc inserted they are to be understood.

(c) Sometimes a clause takes the place of the genitive; as, Eum accisabant quod societatem fecisset. Nep. So the infinitive with the accusative. Quid? quod me—arquit sirum accessisse? Ovid.

REM. 3. (a.) The punishment is commonly expressed by the genitive; as, cipitis, martis, malta, péciaine, quadruph, octuph; but sometimes by the ablative; as, cipite, morte, multi, péciaine; and always by this case when a definite sum is mentioned; as, qui the smallibus aris: or the accusative with ad or in,

as, ad penam, ad bestias, ad metalla, in metallum, in expensors,—somethicos though rarely, in the poets, by the dative, as, Domandats morth. Lucr— (b.) Foti or victorum, and less frequently rôto or victo dumnări, signifies 'to be condemned to fulfil one's vow,' and is consequently equivalent to 'to obtain what one wishes.' So also in the active voice, Damadois tu quoque votis. Virg. Perdo is used by Plantus as a verb of accusing, with cipitis; Quem ègo capital perdam, will charge with a capital offence. So capte or copitis periclitari, Plaut, signifies 'to be in peril of one's life.' With plecto and plector, caput is used in the ablative only.—(c.) Damai infect is put in the genitive (depending upon nomine understood) after satisto, promitto, stipitari, ripromitto, and coveo; as, Si quis in privite demolicand canmi infect i promiseir. Cic.

REM. 4. Accüso, incüso, and instimulo, instead of the genitive, sometimes take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun; as, Si id me non accüsas. Plaut. O 12 me necüsäcéras. Fer. Sic me instimuliar falsum fácitus. Plaut. See 1 231.

Rem. 5.

REM. 5. (a.) The following verbs of accusing, etc., are not followed by a genitive of the crime, but, as active verbs, by an accusative:—cālumnior, curpo, corripio, criminor, culpo, exciso, multo, pinio, répréhendo, ságillo, tazo, traduco, titúpero; as, Culpare infécunditâtem agròrum. Colum. Excüsare erròrem et àdolescentiam. Liv.

(b.) This construction also sometimes occurs with accūso, incūso, arguo, and inarguo; as Epis srāritium perf tdiamque accūsārat. Nep. Culpam arguo. Liv. With multo, the punishment is put in the ablative only, without a preposition; as, Exsiliis, morte multantur. Cic.

§ 218. Verbs of admonishing, with the accusative of the person, are followed by a genitive of the person or thing respecting which the admonition is given; as,

Milites temporis monet, He admonishes the soldiers of the occasion. Tac. Admonobat alium egestatis, alium cupiditatis suce. Sall.

Note. The verbs of admonishing are moneo, admoneo, commoneo, and commonej ácio.

REMARK 1. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing sometimes have an ablative with de; as, De æde Tellüris me admõnes. Cic.—sometimes an accusative of a pronoun or adjective in the neuter gender; as, Eos hoc môneo Gic. Illud me admõneo. Id.; and in the passive, Multa admõnemur. Id.—rarely also a noun in the accusative; as, Eam rem nos lõcus admõneut. Sall.

Rem. 2. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing are also often followed by an infinitive or clause; as, Sōvor alma mônet succedère Lauso Turnum, His sister admonishes Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Virg. Mōnet, it suspiciones vitet. Cæs. Sed eos hoc môneo, desinant fūrère. Cic. Mōnet rationem framenti esse hābendam. Hirt. Immortālia ne spēres mônet annus. Hor. Discipilos id ūnum môneo, ut, etc. Quint. Mōneo quid facto opus sit. Ter. See § 273, 2.

§ 219. Refert and interest are followed by a genitive of the person or thing whose concern or interest they denote; as,

Hümänlidits réfert, It concerns human nature. Plin. Réfert omnium antmadverti în mâlos. Tac. Intérest omnium recte făcere, It concerns all to do right. Cie.

REMARK 1. Instead of the genitive of the substantive pronouns, the adjective pronouns mea, tua, sua, nostra, and vestra, are used; as,

Mea nihil rifert, It does not concern me. Ter. Illud mea magni intérest, Vint greatly concerns me. Cic. Tun et men maxime intérest, te valère. Cic Magis reipublica intérest quam mea. Id. Magni intérest Cicèronis, rel mea pôtius, vel mehercule utriusque, me intervénire dicenti. Id. Note. Refert rarely occurs with the genitive, but often with the pronouns men, thu, etc., and most frequently without either such pronoun or a genitive as, quide refert magné or magnèpère réfert.

REM. 2. In regard to the case of these adjective pronouns, grant marians differ. Some suppose that they are in the accusative plural neuter, agreeing with commodar or the like understood; as, futerest mea, i. e. est inter mea, it is among my concerns. Chers think that they are in the ablative singular feminine, agreeing with re, causā, etc., understood, or in the dative. The better opinion scens to be, that they are in the ablatine for mean, tuam, suam, etc., that refert was originally rem fert, and that hence the e of rifert is long.

REM. 3. Instead of the genitive, an accusative with ad is sometimes used; as, Ad honorem meum interest quam primum urbem me venire. Cic. Quid id ad me aut ad meam rem rifert. Plaut.—sometimes, though rarely, an accusative without a preposition; as, Quid to tystur retails? Plaut—or a dative; as, Die quid riffrat uthra näture fines viventi. Hor.

Rem. 4. The subject of these verbs, or the thing which is of interest or importance, is sometimes expressed by a neuter pronoun; as, Id mea minime rifert. Ter. Hoe vehicunter interest retipablicae. Cic.; and sometimes by an infinitive with its accusative, or ut, or an interrogative particle with a subjunctive clause; as, multum mea interest te esse diligentem, or ut diligens sis, or utrum diligens sis nec ne. When the infinitive alone is used with rifert or interest, the preceding subject is understood; as, omnium interest recte faere, soils see.

REM. 5. The degree of interest or importance is expressed by adverbs or by neuter adjectives, etc., in the accusative or genitive; as, māgis, magnāpēre, rēhēmenter, pirum, minime, etc.; multum, plūs, plūrimum, nihil, āliquād, etc.; tanti, quanti, magni, permagni, plāris. But minimo discrimine refert is found in Juv. 5, 123.

§ 220. Many verbs which are usually otherwise construed, are sometimes followed by a genitive. This rule includes

- 1. Certain verbs denoting an affection of the mind; ango, discritcior, excrisio, fullo, pendeo, which are followed by ânimi; decipior, despio, fullor, fassidio, neideo, mivor, vereor; as, Absurde facis, qui angus te animi. Plaut. Me ânimi fullit. Lucr. Décipitur l'aborum. Hor. Déspiébam mentis. Plaut. Justitiæne prius mirre belline l'âbôrum. Virg.
- The following, in imitation of the Greek idiom; abstinco, desino, purgather, desisto, Virg.; laudo, prohibeo. Sil.; levo, participo. Plaut.; libéro. Liv.; dissolvo. Tibull.; compare liber laborum; operum vácuus; pürus scéleris. § 213.
- 3. Some verbs denoting to fill, to abound, to want or need, to free, which are commonly followed by an ablative. Such are abundo, careo, compleo, expleo, impleo, égeo, indigeo, sátiro, obsátiro, scáteo; as, Adólessentem sue tienéritätis implet. He fills the youth with his own rashness. Liv. Animum explesse flammar. Virg. Egeo consilii. Cic. Non tam artis indigent quam làboris. Id. See §§ 249 and 250, (2-)
- 4. Pottor, which also is usually followed by an ablative; as, Urbis pottri, To make one-self master of the city. Sall. Pottri regni (Cic.), hostima (Sall.), rowner, To make one-self master of the world. Cic. Potto (active) occurs in Plautus; as, Eum name pottri servituitis, He has made him partaker of slavery. In the same writer, pottus est hostium signifies, the fell into the hands of the enemy. So, also, Aldquem compotive predict or vott. App. So, Revum adeptus est. Tac. Dominationis apisci. Id. Regnavia populorum. Hor.

GENITIVE OF PLACE.

§ 221. 1. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the first or second declension and singular number, is put in the genitive; as,

Hâbitat Milêti, He lives at Miletus. Ter. Quid Rômæ făciam? What can I do at Rome? Juv. Hercüles Tỹri maxime côlitur. Cic.

Note. For the construction of nouns of the third declension or plural n.m. ber, see § 254. The following appears to be the best explanation that has been given of this diversity of construction, depending solely on the number or declension of the noun. The name of the town 'where' or 'in which' is probably neither in the genitive nor the ablative, but always, as in Greek, in the dative. Since the genitive and dative are alike in the singular of the first declension and the daive and ablative plural are the same in all declensions, such examples as *Rōmæ and *Athēms present no difficulty. In the third declension the dative and ablative singular were anciently alike, and in such ablatives as *Anxāri, Carthāgini, Lāccāæmōni, the old form remains, see § 82, 82. 5, (c.) In the second declension there was an old dative in oi, as in Greek, which was commonly changed to o, but sometimes to i: and the latter is still, still found in nulli, uni, etc., see § 107, and in the adjective pronouns; as, illi, etc.

REMARK 1. Names of islands and countries are sometimes put in the genitive, like names of towns; as, Ihácæ viere, To live in Ithaca. Cic. Corciya fuimus. Id. Conon plurimum Cypri vizit, Timótheus Lesbi. Nep. Quum Miltiades domum Chersonesi hábuit. 1d. Crite jussit considere Apollo. Virg. Röme Namid-

uzque facinora ejus memorat. Sall.

REM. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, the ablative of names of towns of the first and second declension and singular number, is sometimes, though rurely, used; as, Rex Tyro decidit, The king dies at Tyre. Just. Et Corintho et Athenis et Lâcedamône nunciata est victòria. Id. Pons quem ille Abŷdo fecèrot. Id. Hajus exemplar Româ nullum hàbèmus. Vitruv. Non Libyes, non ante Tyro. Virg. For the explanation of this apparent anomaly, see the preceding note; in accordance with which it may be remarked, that the adverbs of place, ibi, ibidem, dibi, dilcabi, hic, illic, istic, etc., appear from their form to be ancient datives.—(b.) When the noun is qualified by an adjective, it is put, not in the genitive, but in the ablative with in; as, in ipsā Alexandrā. Cie. And poetically without in, Genus Longā nostrum dōmāndōtur Abbā. Virg.—(c.) When urbs, oppidum, bēcus, etc., follow the genitive of place as appositions, they are put in the ablative either with, or, more rarely, without, in; as, Archias Antiochiae nātus est, eclebri quondam urbe. Cie. Circs Rōmānos Neōpūdi, in celeberrimo oppido sepe vidinuss. Id. But when in urbe, etc., precede the name of a town, the latter also is put in the ablative; as, In oppido Citio. Nep; and but very rarely in the genitive; as, Cassius in oppido Antiōchiae est,—in the town of Antioch. Cie., where the genitive depends on oppido.

REM. 3. The genitives dŏmi, mīlĭtiæ, belli, and hŭmi, are construed like names of towns; as,

Tēnuit se dSmi, He staid at home. Gic. Vir domi clārus. Liv. Spargit hīm pissos dentes,—on the ground. Ovid. Millias and belli are thus used, especially when opposed to dômi; ax, Ena semper militise et domi fulmus,—both at home and in the earnp. Ter. So Dômi milliaspue. Gic. Et dômi et milliae. Id. Millias domique. Liv. Millias et dômi. Ter. Belli dômique, in war and in peace. Hor.

(1.) Domi is thus used with the possessives mea, twa, swa, nostra, restra, and dilienc; as, Domi nostra vixit, He lived at my house. Cic. Apud cum sic ful tempana meae domi. Id. Sacrif cium, quod alienae domi fiert turisere. Id. But with other adjectives, an ablative, generally with a preposition, is used; as, notdut down. Ovid. Paterna domo. Id. Sometimes also with the possessives; as, Mea in domo. Hor. In domo sua. Nep. So, instead of hami, upon the ground.

hume is sometimes used, with or without a preposition; as, In humo are uosa Ovid. Sédère humo nudā. Id.

(2.) When a genitive denoting the possessor follows, either domi or in dome is used; as, Deprehensus domi Čæsaris. Cic. Domi illius fuisti. Id. In domo

Casaris. Id. În domo ejus. Nep.

(3.) The ablative domo for domi also occurs, but not in Cicero; as, Ego in nume expérior domo. Plant. Dômo se tenère. Nep. Dômo abditus. Suet. Bello for belli is found in Livy—Dômo se tenère. Nep. Dômo abditus. Suet. Bello for belli is found in Livy—Dômo bellôque. So, also, hàmo for hàm; States hàmo. Stat. Figil hàmo plantas. Virg.: and in hūmo làmen figil. O vid.

(4.) Terræ is sometimes used like humi; as, Sacra terræ cēlārimus. Liv. Projectus terræ. Virg. Ignes terræ condit. Luc. So, also, árénæ; Truncum réliquit ărēnæ. Virg.: and viciniæ; Proximæ viciniæ habitat. Plaut.

(5.) The genitive of names of towns, domi, militiae, etc., is supposed by some to depend on a noun understood; as, urbe, oppido, ædibus, solo, loco, tempore, atc., but see a different explanation above in Note.

GENITIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

II. Certain adverbs are followed by the genitive. See § 212, R. 4.

III. The genitive plural sometimes depends on the preposition těnus; as,

Cămărum tenus, As far as Comme. Coel. Crūrum tenus. Virg. Láterum tenus. Id. Urbium Corcyræ tenus. Liv.—For the ablative after tenus, and for the place of the preposition, see § 241, and R. 1.

DATIVE.

§ 222. 1. The dative is the case of reference, as it denotes the object with reference to which the subject acts, or in reference to which it possesses any specified quality; or, in other words, the object for which, to the benefit or loss of which, any thing is or is done. Hence, in distinction from the dative of the end (§ 227) the dative of reference is called datīvus commodi et incommodi, the dative of advantage and disadvantage; as,

Scribo vobis hunc librum, I write this book for you. Prosum tibi, or Tibi ūtilis sum, I am useful to you.

Hence the dative of advantage and disadvantage may be used (a) with adjectives and particles whose meaning is incomplete unless the object is mentioned in reference to which the quality exists. (b) With verbs both transitive and intransitive. If transitive they take an accusative of the nearer and a dative of the remoter object, if intransitive they take a dative only. (c) With certain verbs compounded with prepositions, after which the dative is used instead of the case which the preposition, if separate, would govern. (d) After a few verbal substantives derived from verbs which govern a dative.

DATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

3. A noun limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put a the dative, t denote the object to which the quality is di rected; as,

Utilis egris, Useful to the fields Juv. Jūcundus āmicis, Agreeable t: his friends. Yurt Istmīcus quieti, Unfriendly to rest. Id. Charta inūtilis scribendo, Paper not useful for writing. Plin.

Note. The dative is commonly translated by the prepositions to or for; but sometimes by other prepositions, or without a preposition.

REMARK I. Adjectives signifying useful, pleasant, friendly, fit, like, inclined, ready, easy, clear, equal, and their opposites, also those signifying near, many compounded with con, and verbals in bilis, are followed by the dative; as,

Féliz tuis, Propitious es your friends. Virg. Orâtio ingrâta Gallis, A speech lisplensing to the Gauls. Ces. Asvieus trynumid, Friendly to tyramy. Nep. Labori inhâdilis, Unsuited to xbor. Colum. Patri simils, Like his father. Cic. Nihit tem est Lysice decersion, quam Isocrâtes, Aptum tempori. Id. Malo proms. Sen. Promptus sevition; Tac. Cuivis facile est. Ter. Mini certam est. Cic. Par frairi tuo. Id. Fals. veris finitina sunt. Id. Ocali concôlores corport. Colum. Multis bonis pirchits. Live. More set terribile iis, quòrum, etc. Cic.

- (a.) The following are some at the adjectives included in Rem. 1, viz. gritus, acceptus, dukeis, jūcunds, ketus. 8. tviṣ i unrātus, insuāris, injavundus, molestus, grīcis, ācerbus, ohlesus, tristis—attivs, inātlies, bonus, sālaber, salādirīs, fractuosus; calāmītosus, damnosus, fractus, menus, pestfer, peratciosus, catilismis—amicus, bēnēvolus, cārus, fāmilāris, ceptus, falas, falēlis, projatūs, sicundus; tunicus, odversus, eemālus, altīnus, contrārius, inţestus, trijūlus, inigunus, ivitus;—aptus, accentusditus, appostus, habblis, icò eus, opportusus; trepus, thabblis, inportusus; trepromus, proceptus, habblis, icò eus, opportusus; trepus, thabblis, inportusus; trepromus, proceivis, propusus, promptus, pratatus—facilis, difficilis—discolor:—promus, proceivis, propusus, promptus, pratatus—facilis, difficilis—dipertus, conspicus, matuficstus, perspicuus, obscūrus, certus, compertus, notus, ambiguus, dabins, iprodus, incertus, mikius;—cicinus, funitus, confinus, contenus, propior, proctimus, cognatus, consonus, consonus, consenious, configus, continus, contenus, consonus, consonus
- (b.) Many adjectives of other significations, including some compounds of ob, sub, and super, as obnowins, obrius, ubjectus, supplex, and superstes, are also followed by a dative of the object.
- (c.) After verbuls in bills, the dative is usually rendered by the preposition by; as, Tibi cridibilis sermo, A speech c edible to you, i. e. worthy to be believed by you. Oxid.
- (d.) The expression dicto audiens, sign lying obedient, is followed by the dative; as, Syracisian nobis dicto audientes sent. Cic. Audiens dicto fut jussig majoistratum. Nep. In this phrase, dicto so a dative limiting audiens, and the words dicto audiens seem to form a compound equivalent to obediens, and like that, followed by a dative; thus, Nec plebs nöbis dicto audiens atque obediens sit. Liv. So dicto obediens; as, Fuura es dicto obediens, amon, patri? Plant.
- Rem. 2. (a.) The adjectives æquālis, affinis, ālienus, cognāminis, commūnis, contrarus, fizis, insuetus, par, dispar, pēcultāris, proprius, propinquus, sicer, similis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis, secius, ricinus, sūperstes, supplec, and some others, instead of a dative of the object, are sometimes followed by a genitive; as, Par hayus, Equal to him. Lucan. Proprium est ōrātoris ornāte dicēre. Cic. But most of these words, when thus used, seem rather to be taken substantively; as, Æquālis ejus, Ilis contemporary. Cic.
- (b.) Similis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis, par and dispur, take the genitive, when an internal resemblance, or a resemblance in character or disposition, is to be expressed, and hence we always find mei, tui, sai, nostri, vestri, similis; 53, Plures réges Ronnili quam Nume similes. Liv.
- 'c.) Amicus, înimicus, and fumiliaris, oxing to their character as substantives, take a genitive even in the superlative; as, Hōmo âmicissimus nostrôrum bomanum,-very friendly to our countrymen. Cic. On the other hand, hosis, though a substantive, is sometimes und like an adjective, being notified by

an adverb, and taking an object in the dative; as, Exspectantivus omnibus quisnom esset tum impius, tum demens, tam diis hominibusque hostis, qui, etc. Cf. § 277, R. 1.

REM. 3. Some adjectives with the dative are followed by another case denoting a different relation; as, $Mens sibi conscia recti, A mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Virg. See <math>\S$ 213, R. 7.

- Rem. 4. Many adjectives, instead of the dative of the object, are often followed by an accusative with a preposition.
- (1.) Adjectives signifying useful, fit, and the opposite, take an accusative of the thing with ad, but only a dative of the person; as, Hômo ad nullam rem zells. Cic. Lôcus optus ad institus. Id.
- (2.) Adjectives denoting motion or tendency, take an accusative with ad more frequently than a dative; as, Piger ad poenas, ad præmia vēloz, Ovid; Ad ölüptem morbum préclivier, Cic.; Ad omne fácious pôrâtus, Id.; Prônus ad fidem, Liv.;—sometimes with in; as, Cêler in pugnam. Sil.
- (3.) Many adjectives, signifying an affection of the mind, may have an accusative of the object with in, erga, or adversus, instead of the dative; as, Fidelis in fillos. Just. Mater acerba in sum partus. Ovid. Grātus erga me. Cic. Grātum adversus te. ld. So Dissāmilis in dominum. Tac.
- (4.) Adjectives signifying like, equal, common, etc., when plural, are often followed by the accusative with inter; as, Inter se similes. Cic. Heec sunt inter eos communia. Id. Inter se diversi. Id.
- Rem. 5. Pröpior and proximus, instead of the dative, have sometimes, like their primitive prôpe, an accusative; as, Quod vitium pròpius virtûtem èrat. Sall. P. Crassus proximus māre Oceānum hirmārat. Cæs. Ager, qui proximus finem Mēgālipolitārum est. Liv. Cf. § 238, 1.
- REM. 6. (a.) Some adjectives, instead of the dative, have at times an ablative with a preposition. Thus, par, commains, consentances, discors, with can; as, Quem pirem can liberis féristi. Sall. Consentances cum its litéris. Cic. Cicties sectum discors. Liv. So alliems and diversus with a or ab; as, Alliems and, Ter.; A ratione diversus, Cic.; or without a preposition; as, Alliems mostré amietità. Id.—(b.) Fritus, which regularly takes the ablative, is in Livy construed with the dative; as, forthme fritus; multi rei frébas, etc. Ci. 2 244.—(c.) The participaid adjectives junctus and conjunctus, instead of the dative take sometimes the ablative either with or without cam.
- REM. 7. Idem is sometimes followed by the dative, chiefly in the poets, as figiter comminus idem. Virg. Invitum qui servat, idem focia cocidenti. Bor in the first example, omnibus is a dative of the object; in the second, the dative follows idem, in initiation of the Greek construction with $2\sigma\tau\delta\epsilon$ and is equivalent to quod occidens, or quod facit is, qui occidit. Similis is construed in the same manner in Hor. Sat. 1, 3, 122. Idem is generally followed not by a case, but by qui, ac, atque, at, quois, or quam; sometimes by the preposition cum. Cf. § 207, R. 27, (d.) Similis and par are sometimes, like idem, it flowed by ac and atque.
- REM. S. Some verbal substantives are followed by the cative, when derived from verbs governing the dative; as, Justitia est obtempëratio scriptis legibus institutisque populorum. Cic. Trāditio discūjus rei altēri. Id. Exprobrātio cuiquam viteris fortune. Liv.
- Note. A dative of the object often follows esse and other verbs, in connection with a predicate n minative or accusative, but such dative is dependent, not on the noun, but on the verb C. § 227, R. 4

DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 223. A noun limiting the meaning of a verb, is put in the dative, to denote the *object to* or *for* which any thing is, or is done; as,

Mea dómm tibli pâtet, My house is open to you. Cic. Pars optâre lôcum tecto, A part choose a site for a building. Virg. Tibl séris, tibl métis, You sow for yourself, vou reap for yourself. Plant. Licet nêmini contra partiam dâcére exercitum, It is not lawful for any one to lead an army against his country. Cic. Hoc tibl prômitto, I promise you this. Id. Heret lateri lètalis áraudó. Virg. Surdo f âbulam narras. Hor. Mihi responsum dédil. Virg. Sic vos non vobis fertis áratra, bôces. Id. Ounibus bônis expédit salvam esse rempüblicam. Cic. Aptat habondo ensem. Virg.

Norz. The dative is thus used after all repts, whether transitive or intransitive, personal or impersonal, and in both voices, provided their signification admits a reference to a remoter object, for whom or to whose benefit or injury any thing is done. In the passite voice, from their nature, nenter verbs can only be so construed impersonally. Cf. 9 142, 1, and 9 252, 2.

REMAKE 1. The datire after many verbs is rendered not by to or for, but by other prepositions, or without a prepositiou. Many intransitive Latin verbs are translated into English by verbs transitive, and the datire after them is usually rendered like the object of a transitive verb.—Most verbs after which the signs to and for are not used with the datire, are enumerated in this and the following sections.

REM. 2. Many verbs signifying to favor, please, trust, assist, and their contraries, also to command, obey, serve, resist, threaten, and be angry, take a dative of the object.

NOTE. The neuter verbs comprehended in this rule generally express in the verbal form the meaning of those adjectives, which are followed by the dative, (cf. § 222, R. 1.) Thus, (a.) Illa tibi facet, She favors you, or is favorable to you. Ovid. Mini placebut Pompoints, minime displacebut. Cic. Qui sibi failt. How. Non beet sui commodi cruss incere alteri. Cic. Non irriditar illi activi sed ction facetur. Id. Despirat saluti suc. Id. Neque mini vestra decreta auxiliantur. Sall. Impérat aut servit collecta pécania enique. Hor. Obédire et pârcre voluntati. Cic. Unonium faction inimitorum résistère néquivérit. Sall. Mihi mindidatur. Cic. Irasci nimités. Cass.

(b.) So Aidlor, assentior, blandior, commödo, fáveo, grátifiror, grátor, grátidor, and its verbal grátididnadus, ignosco, indulgeo, lenocturo, palpor, parco, plaudo, respondeo, stúdeo, supprásitor; amidor, incommödo, incideo, nôceo, obsam, offico;—arrido, pláceo; displico;—crédo, fido, confido; dispèro, diffido;—adminicidor, auxilior, mêdeor, mêdicor, particior, patrécinor, prosions, subrênio, sucuror: désum, nicilior;—impèro, mando, môderor, proripio, tempèro; ausvalto, morigeror, öbetio, obsecuado, obsequer, obsempèro, perro, dicto audiens sum;—ancillor, familior, ministro, ervic, inservio, pressión successo, siómédor.—To these may be added ergue, adeque, conricior, sisto, and, chiely in the poets, bello, certo, luctor, pagno:—mônor, comminor, interminor;—rascor, successo, siómédor.—To these may be added ergue, adeque, conricior, degenêro, escello, nitho, suppédito, practicor, rêcipio (to promise), rêmucio, suidiro, persuado, dissuado, supplico, vaico, videro, and sometimes misco and lateo:—also the impersonals accivit; conteñit, condicit, contigit, deser, dolte, repedit, licet, libit, or lioet, liquet, placet, etc.—(c.) Intransitive verbs governing a dative are often used impersonals persuaded of this.

(1) (a.) Many of the above verbs, which, as intransitive, take the dative, sometimes become transitive and are followed by an accusative; as, additor, auscullo, blandior, digenero, despéro, indulgeo, lateo, médecor, médicor, modicror, obtrecto, prastôlor, právideo, etc.; as, Additri dilquem. Cic. Hanc câve dégênés. Ses. Ovid. Inbulgo me. Ter. Highs adventum prastôloms. Cass. Právidire rem framentariam. Id.—Sometimes also by a preposition and the ablative or accusative; as, A Stôleis dégênérair Pâmetins. Cic. De républica despéraire. Id. Obtrectărunt inter se. Nep.—or by a dependent clause; as, Quæ despérai tradata in jesszére posse, rélinant. Hor.

- (b.) Others, as transitive verbs, have, with the dative, an accusative, expressed or understood; as, impèro, maudo, ministro, minor, comminor, interminor, practipio, récipio, récuncio, etc.; as, Equites impèrat civitaitius; where cogendos is perhaps to be supplied, He enjoins upon the states the providing of cavalry. Cas. See § 274, R. 5. Ministrâre victum âlicui. Varr. Deflagrătionem urbi et Italia tôti minăbătur. Cic.
- (c.) Equo and ādequo are construed with the accusative and either the dative or cum with the ablative.—Invideo takes either a single dative of the person or thing, a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; as, Hōnō-rem milh invident. Hor.; or, when invider is used in the sense of pricine, a dative of the person and an ablative of the thing; as, No inviderant hade suralliribus. Liv. In Horace, by a Greek construction, the genitive is once used instead of the accusative or ablative of the thing; as, Nêque ille sîpôsîti cicirince longe invidet archive.
- (d.) Cēdo, used transitively, takes a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; but sometimes the thing is expressed by the ablative; as, cēdēra dificui possessione hortom. So, also, concēdo thi licum, or concēdo thi loco.
- (2.) Many verbs which, from their significations, might be included in the above classes, are, as transitive verbs, only followed by an accusative; as, delecto, jiwo, adjiwo, adjiwo, defindo, etc.—Jübeo is followed by the accusative with an infinitive, and sometimes by the accusative alone, or the dative with the infinitive or subjunctive; as, Jübeo to beine sperime. Cic. Lex jübel en quae ficienda sunt. Id. Ubi Britannico jussit casurgère. Tac. Quibus jussèrat, ut instantibus résistérent. Id.—Fido and confido are often followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition; as, Fidére cursu. Ovid. Cf. § 245.
- § 224. Many verbs compounded with these eleven prepositions, ăd, antě, cŏn, ĭn, intěr, ŏb, post, præ, prō, sùb, and sŭpěr, are followed by the dative; as,

Annue coptis, Be favorable to our undertakings. Virg. Römänis equitibus litère afféruntur, Letters are brought to the Roman knights. Cic. Antécellère omnibus, To excel all. Id. Antétidit îree réligiõmen. Nep. Antécque virs concurrère virgo. Virg. Exercitum exercitui, dûces duelbus comparâre. Liv. Inminet his aér. Ovid. Pécòri signum impressit. Virg. Now prelio intervénit. Liv. Interdixit histrioulbus scénam. Suet. Meis commôdis officis et obstas. Cic. Cam se hostiam telis objecissent. Id. Posthabui mea séria l'îdo. Virg. Certâniai præsédit. Suet. Hibernis Labienum propôsuit. Cas. Genlius procumbère. Ovid. Miséris succurrère disco. Virg. Iis subsidia submittébut. Cæs. Timidis sépercénit Ægle. Virg.

- Note 1. This rule implies that the compound retains the meaning of the preposition; and the dative following such compound is then used instead of the case governed by the preposition. When such compounds are transitive they have with the dative an accusative also, like other transitive verbs.
- Accèdo, aceresso, accumbo, acquiesco, adēqu'ito, adhoreo, adjaceo, adno, adnáto, adsto, adstipullor, adsum, adversor, affuigeo, aldbor, all'ado, annuo, apparro, apphande, approprimpuno, arrèpo, arricho, asrivo, assentior, assèto, assisto, assisto, assisto, assisto, assusco, assurgo i—wldo, adibeo, adjeio, adjungo, admöveo, adverto, advoivo, affero, affigo, alligo, appropo, appreso, appreso.
- Antēcēdo, untēcello, anteco, antesto, antēvēnio, antēverto;—antēfēro, antēhābeo, antēpēno.
- 3. Converse, collido, concino, congruo, consentio, consono, consuesco, convivo, and, chiefly in the poets, coco, concumbo, concurro, contendo;—confeto, conjungo, comparo, compono.
- 4. Incido, incübo, incumbo, indormio, ingémisco, inhareo, inhio, innascor, innitor, insideo, insisto, insto, insudo, insulto, incüdo, invigilo, ildarrino, illudo, immineo, immorior, impendeo, insum;—immisco, imperito, impôno, i imprimo, incido, induo, inféro, ingéro, injicio, insèro, inspergo, insuesco, initro.
- 5. Intercedo, intercido, interciado, interjaceo, intermaco intersum, intervenio; -- intersteo, interficio, interpon-

- Obavibilo, δberro, δbēquīto, obluctor, obmurmūro, obrēpo, obsto, obsisto, olstrēpo, obsum, obtrecto, obvēnio, obversor, occumbo, occurro, occurso, off icio; -obi úco, objicio, off ero, off undo, oppino.
 - 7 Pestfero, posthábeo, postpono, postputo, postscribo.
- Præcēdo, præcurro, præeo, prælūceo, præmineo, præniteo, præsideo, præsum, prævileo, prævertor;—præfēro, præficio, præpūno.
 - 9. Procumbo, proficio, propugno, prospicio, provideo.
- Succēdo, sucresso, succumbo, succurro, sufficio, suffragor, suboleo, subjaceo, subrēpo, subsum, subvēnio;—subdo, subjicio, subjugo, submitto, suppono, substerno.
 - 11. Supercurro, supersto, supersum, supervenio, supervivo.

NOTE 2. In some verbs compounded with prepositions the meaning of the preposition is lost. Such compounds are either not followed by a dative, or the case depends, not on the preposition, but on the signification of the verb. according to § 223.

REMARK I. (a.) Some verbs, compounded with āb, dē, cx, circum, and contrâ, are occasionally followed by the dative; as, absum, distant, distalor, despiro, excido, circumdo, circumfando, circumfaceo, circumficeo, contradico, contradico

REM. 2. Some verbs of repelling and taking away (most of which are compounds of id, de, or es), are sometimes followed by the dative, though more commonly by the ablative; as, doi:go, abrigo, abscindo, aaféro, ādino, arceo, defendo, demo, dipello, derigo, di traho, êripo, erno, escatio, eximo, extorqueo, extraho, exuo, prohibeo, sarripio. Thus, Nec mili te ripient, Nor shall they take you from me. Ovid. Solstitim pecori defendite. Virg. Hanc arcebis pecori. Id. So rarely abrumpo, dizion, of iror, and ripio.

REM. 3. Some verbs of differing (compounds of di or dis) likewise occur with the dative, instead of the ablative with the preposition db, or poetically with the ablative alone; as, differo, discrépo, discordo, dissentio, disside, disto; as, Quantum simplex hibrisque nepoti discrépet, et quantum discordet, purcus Aviro. Hor. Distabit inflos escurre âmicus. Hor. Gracie Trustânece stâue différent. Quint. Comedia differt sermôni. Hor. So likewise misceo; as, Mista môdestite grâticus. Cic.

REM. 4. Many verbs compounded with prepositions, especially with ad, con, and in, instead of the dative, either constantly or occasionally take the case of the preposition, which is frequently repeated. Sometimes, also, a preposition of similar signification is used; as, Ad primina vocem timidas advertition awares. Ovid. Nemo eum antéressit. Neps. Suza vides solic codisseire calce. Lucr. Inférent omnia in ignem. Cass. Silex incumbébat ad ammem. Virg. Imixus moderantine nairs. Ovid. In Pansam fratrem imixus. Pilm. Conferte have parea cum illo bello. Cic. In this substitution of one preposition for anothe, ad is used for in, and in for ad; ab for ex; ad, anté, contra, and in, for ob; ad and anté, for prò.

Rem. 5. Neuter verbs of motion or of rest in a place, when compounded with the prepositions, \$\dag{a}\text{data}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ca}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$ reliquos Gallo-virtate precedunt, The Helvetti surpass the other Gauls in valor. Gas. \$\text{Uterque}\text{in}\$, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$ in the precedural. Cic. So preceo, practo, pracetto, pracetto, \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$ is \$\dag{ta}\text{in}\$.

\$ 225. I. Verbs compounded with sătis, běne, and măle, are tollowed by the dative; as,

Et nătiire et légibus sătisfécit, He satisfied both nature and the laws. Cic. Thi dit bénéfaciant omnes, May all the gods bless you. Plant. But also, Amicum ergu bêne féci. Al. Makkideit utrique. Hor. So sătisdo, bênêdico, makêfacio

Note. These compounds are often written separately; and the dative always depends not on sairs, bein, and make, but on the simple verb. So, also, bein and make alterivile; as, Tibi beine ex animo volo. Ter. Illi zeo ex omnibus optime volo. Plant. Non tibi male vult. Petron. In like manner coler dice, and vide droi; as, Augustus discedens e carrial) södentibus singülis välere drebat. Suct. Tibi välediröre non liedt grätis. Sen.—In hat writers behelfen om dreddeles ometimes take the accusative.

II. Verbs in the passive voice are sometimes followed by a dative of the active following the poets and the later prose writers; as, Quidquid in has causa milli susceptam est. Cic. Neque cernitur ulli, Nor is he seen by any one. Virg. Nulla taarum auditu mili neque visu sorbrum. Id. Barbūrus hic ego sum, quia non intelligor ulli. Ovid. But the agent after passives is usually in the ablative with a or ab. See § 248, I.

III. The participle in dus is followed by a dative of the agent; as,

Unda omnibus enaviganda, The wave over which (we) all must pass, Hor. Nöbis, cum sömel occidit brêvis luc, Noz est perpétua una dormienda. Catull. Adhibenda est nöbis diligentia, We must use diligence. Cic. Vestigia summõrum höminum sibi tuenda esse dicit. Id. Si vis me flêre, dölendum est primum ipsi tibi. Hor. Faciendum mihi pätäci, ut responderem. Id.

REMARK 1. The dative is sometimes wanting when the agent is indefinite; as, Orandam est, at sit mens sama in corpore samo. Juv. Hic vinceudum aut moriculum, milites, est. Liv. In such examples, tibi, vöbis, nöbis, höminibus, etc., may be supplied. Cf. § 141, R. 2.

REM. 2. The participle in dus sometimes, though rarely, has, instead of the dative of the agent, an ablative with ā or db; as, Non eas in deforum immordālium nāmēro rēnērandos a vibis et colendos pātātos? Cic. Hace a me in dicendo præferenda non sunt. Id.—The dative after participles in dus is by some referred to § 226.

IV. Verbs signifying motion or tendency are followed by an accusative with ăd or ĭn; as,

Ad templum Pallădis îbunt. Virg. Ad prætūrem hömīnem traxit. Cic. Vergit ad septemtriūnes. Cæs. In conspectum vénīre. Nep.

So curro, duco, fero, festino, fágio, inclino, lego, mitto, pergo, porto, pracipito, propero, tendo, tollo, vado, verto.

REMARK 1. So likewise verbs of calling, exciting, etc.; as, Eurum ad se vocat. Virg. Provocasse ad pugnam. Cic. So animo, hortor, incito, invito, lacesso, stimulo, suscito; to which may be added attineo, conformo, pertineo, and specto.

REM. 2. But the dative is sometimes used after these verbs; as, Clianor is coelo. Virg. Dum tibi litera mea vémant. Cic. Grégem viridi compellère hibisco. Virg. Seilbus lanc réfer aute suis. Id. After vénio both constructions are used at the same time; as, Vénit milit in mentem. Cic. Vénit milit in suspicionem. Nep. Eum vénisse Germânis in amicitiam cognôcérat. Cass. Propinquo (to approach) takes the dative only.

REM. 3. Sometimes also verbs signifying motion are followed by an accusative of place without a preposition, a supine in um, an infinitive, or an adverb of place; as, Römam profectors est. Ite dömum. Rus ibam. Lävinia vend torn. Virg. Neque ege te deristum evalv. Plaut. Non nos Lidgors populäre pehates ventumus. Virg. Huc eval. Plaut. See §§ 237, 276, II. 271, N. 2.

REM. 4. After do, scribo, or mitto literas, the person for whom they are written or to whom they are sent, is put either in the dative or in the accusative with ud; as, Ex co bloo tibl literas and dederamus. Cic. Vulturcius literas sind

ad Catlinam datas esse, dicebat. Id. Oesar scribit Labiëno cum, etc. Caes. Ad me Carius de te scripsit. Cice. But to give one a letter to deliver is also ser pressed by dare literus alicui, and also the delivery of the letter by the bearer.

§ 226. Est is followed by a dative denoting a possessor;—the thing possessed being the subject of the verb.

Est thus used may generally be translated by the verb to have with the active as its subject; as, Est mihi dömi päter, I have a father at home. Virg Sunt nöbis mitia pöma, We have mellow apples. Id. Grātia nöbis öpus est tuā, We have need of your favor. Cie. Innöcentire plus pēriculi quam hönöris est. Sall. An nexis longus rēgibus esse māmus? Ovid. So with am infinitive as the subject, Wee tibi sit dārus ōcuisse in prelia dentes. Tib. 4, 3, 3. The first and seyond persons of sum are not thus construed.

REMAIK I. Hence mihi est nomen signifies, I have the name, my name is, or 1 am called. The proper name is put either in the nominative, the dative, or the genitive. See § 204, R. S. So also cognomen, cognomentum, and, in Tacitus, rocabulum, est mihi.—Sometimes, also, a possessive adjective agreeing with nomen, etc., supplies the place of the proper name; as, Est mihi nomen Tarquinium. Gell. Mercuriale imposuere mihi cognomen. Hor.

REM. 2. The dative is used with a similar signification after fore, supplit, abest, deest, and difit; as, Pauper enim non est, cut rerum supplit usus. Hor. Si mini caudu foret, cercóptibecus éram. Mart. Difuit ars voltis. Ovid. Non difore Arsachlis virtutem. Tac. Lac mini non difit. Virg. Hoc unum illi abjuit. Cie.

REM. 3. With the dative of the person after est Sallust and Tacitus sometimes join, by a Greek idiom, rolens, cipiens, and invitus; s., Quin notemple militia rolent (esse) patabatur. Because the common people were not thought to like the war. Sall. Ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cipientibus èrut, According as each liked or disliked the war. Tac.

DATIVE OF THE END OR PURPOSE.

§ 227. Sum, and several other verbs, are followed by two datives, one of which denotes the *object to which*, the other the end for which, any thing is, or is done; as,

Mihi mazima est căre, It is a very great care to me. Cic. Spēro nöbis hanc conjunctionem võluptāti före, I hope this union will afford us pleusure. Id. Mātri puellum dono deldt. Ter. Fabio laudi deltum est. Cic. Viito id thii vertum! Plaut. Id tibi hor. õri habetur. Cic. Mātārācit collēgæ vēntre auxilio. Liv Cui böno fuit? To whom was it an advantage? Cic.

REMARK 1. The verbs after which two datives occur, are sum, före, fio, do, deno, diro, dobo, relinquo, tribuo, verto; also curro, co, mitto, proficistor, venio, appono, assigno, celto, comparo, pateo, suppetito, emo, and some others.

Rem. 2. The dative of the end or purpose is often used after these verbs, without the dative of the object; as,

Exemplo est formica, The ant is (serves for) an example. Hor. Absentium bone divisui fuere. Liv. Reliquit pignori patamina. Plant. Que ésui et potut sunt. Gell. Esse dérisui, To be a subject of ridicule. Inc. Receptui cânére, To sonnd a retreat. Cass. Aliquid doit dicâre, To set out as dowry. Cio.

REM. 3. (a.) The verb sum, with a dative of the end, may be variously rendered; as by the words brings, affords, serves, does, etc. The sign for is often omitted with this dative, especially after sum instead of it, as, or some other particle; may at times be used; as,

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Innāria ērit tibi magno dēdēcēri, Cowardice will bring great disgrace to you Cic. Hee res est argâmento, This thing is an argument, or serves as an argument. Id. How vitio mihi dant, This they set down as a fault in me. Universo cūrae habbit. Snet. Una res ērat magno ūni.... was of great use. Lucil. Quod tibi magnāpēre cordi est, mihi vēhēmenter dasplicet, What is a great pleasure, an object of peculiar interest to you, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the words fit, able, ready, etc., must be supplied, especially before a gerundi or a gerundive; as, Quam solvendo civitátes non essent, ... not able to pay. Cic. Divites, qui oneri ferendo essent. Liv. Qua restinguendo igni forent. Liv. Radix ejus est vescendo. Plin.

Rem. 4. Instead of the dative of the end, a predicate nominative or accusative is sometimes used; as. Nātūrā tu illi pater es, By nature you are his father. Amor est extinum pēcōri: or the purpose is expressed by the accusative with ad or in; as, Alicui comes est ad bellum. Cic. Se Rēmis in clientēlam dicāband. Cæs.: or by the ablative with pro; as, handeenda pro mālivolientiā daci capit. Sall. Alcibas sund arbūres pro cūbilibus. Cæs.

REM. 5. Instead, also, of the dutive of the end or purpose, quo? to what end? for what purpose? why? sometimes occurs, with an accusative, which generally depends on a verb understood, or with an infinitive or a clause; as, Quo mihi fortinism, si non conceditur āti? Hor. Quo tibi, Pasiphae, prētūsas sāmēre vestes? Ovid.

REM. 6. After do and other similar active verbs an accusative of the purpose is found in apposition; as, Lâtni côrônam auream Jôri dônum in Câpitôlium mittuat. Liv. Alteui cômitem esse dâtum. Cic. Cf. § 204, R. 1; and § 230, R. 2.

Note. The dative, instead of the accusative, is sometimes used after the infinitive, when a dative precedes, and the subject of the infinitive is omitted; as, I'bis nécesse est faythus sess viris. Liv. Maximo tibi et civi et dûci êvâdêre contigut. Val. Max. See §§ 205, R. 6, and 239, R. 1.

DATIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

§ 228. Some particles are followed by the dative of the object; as,

1. Some adverbs derived from adjectives; as,

Propius Tiberi quam Thermopylis. Nep. Prosime castris, Very near to the camp. Ces. Propius stabulis armenta tënërent. Virg. Congruenter naturse, conceinenterque cicére, Agraeably to nature. Cic. Epicârus quam sibi constanter conceinenterque dicat, non latorat. Id. Kemini rimina bêne est. Afran. Mihi manaquam in cită fui mellos. Hor. Vivere vitre homitam âmice. Cic. Bêne mihi, bêne vôbis. Plant. So, Mihi obrium venisti. Cic. In certâmina savo comminus îre viro. Sil. Questôres prôcincia mihi prasto fucrunt. Cic. Samos est ecadeersum Mileto. App.

REMARK. Própius and proxime, like their primitive pròpe, are sometimes construed with a and the ablative; as, Prôpe a meis ædibus. Cic. Stelle errantes pròpius a terris. Id. A Sura proxime est Philiscum, oppidum Parthōrum. Plin.

 Certain prepositions, especially in comic writers; as, Mihi clum est, It is unknown to me. Plaut. Contra nobis. Id. But in such instances they seem rather to be used like adjectives.

3. Certain interjections; as, Hei mihi! Ah me! Yirg. Væ mihi! Wo is me! Ter. Væ victis esse! Liv. Væ miséro mihi. Plant Hem tibi. Id. Ecce tibi. Cic.

Note. (a.) The dative of the substantive pronouns seems sometimes nearly redundant, but it always conveys the expression of a lively feeling, and in therefore termed datious editions; as,

Fur mihi es m my opinion. Plant. An ille mihi liber, cui mülier impérat! Civ. Tongilium mihi éduxit. Id. Ubi nunc nobis deus ille magister? Virg. Ecce tibi Schösus! Cic. Hem tibi tälentum argenti! Philippi um est. Plaut. Sibi is sometimes subjoined quite pleonastically to suns; us, Sun sibi gliddo hane pigglo. Plaut. Ignorans suo sibi servit potri. Id. Sibi suo tempore.

pague. Finut. Injourants suo suo serrei pairi. 10. Suo suo tempore.
(b.) The following phrases also occur with rolo and a reflexive promount quid this vis? what do you want? quid shi iste rull? what does he want? quid wat shi hee oratio? what does this speech mean? quid hee shi done volunt? what is the meaning of these presents? or, what is their object?

ACCUSATIVE.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 229. The object of a transitive verb is put in the accusa tive; as,

Lēgātos mittunt, They send ambassadors. Cæs. Animus móret corpus, The mind moves the body. Cic. Da vēniam hanc, Grant this favor. Ter. Eum mitāti sunt, They imitated him. Cic. Piscem Syri vēnērantur. Id.

Remark 1. A transitive verb, with the accusative, often takes a genitive, dative, or ablative, to express some additional relation; as,

Te convinco amentiæ, I convict you of madness. Cic. Da locum mělioribus, Give place to your betters. Ter. Solvit se Teucria Inctu, Troy frees herself from grief. Virg. See those cases respectively.

REM. 2. Such is the difference of idiom between the Latin and English languages, that many verbs considered transitive in one, are used as intransitive in the other. in translating transitive Latin verbs, a preposition must often be supplied in English; as, Ut me caveret. That he should beware of me. Cic. On the other hand, many verbs, which in Latin are intransitive, and do not take an accusative, are rendered into English by transitive verbs; as, Ille milli favet, He favors me: and many verbs originally intransitive acquire a transitive signification.

Rem. 3. The verb is sometimes omitted:—

1. To avoid its repetition; as, Eventum sénātus, quem (scil. dăre) vidēbītur, dābīt. Liv.

2. The interrogative interjection quid? what? depends on ais or censes. So also quid vero? quid àgitur? quid ergo? quid énim? which are always followed anso quaterers quae region quae regio quae amin's which are anways followed by another question, and both questions may be united into one proposition, the first serving merely to introduce the interrogation. With quid posted quid tum? supply séquitur. With quid quod, occurring in transitions, dicam de eo is omitted, but it may be rendered 'nay,' 'nay even,' 'but now,' 'noore-over,' etc., without an interrogation.—Dicam is also to be supplied with quid multa? quid plairs? In emulta; ne plaira. The infinite dicere is also sometimes omitted; as, Nimis multa videor de me. Cic. Perge véliqua. Id.

Rem. 4. The accusative is often omitted:

 When it is a reflexive pronoun; as, Now precipitat, seil. se Virg. !'um prora avertit. Id. Eo lavatum, scil. me. Hor.

The reflexives are usually wanting after aboleo, abstineo, accingo, adaquo, aquo, agglomero, augeo, celero, congemino, continuo, declino, decoquo, desino, differo, duro, erumpo, fieto, deflecto, faresso, incipio, inclino, instano, irrumpo, jungo, faro, laro, leno, mátro, multo, môrvo, múto, pôno, parcipito, porumpo, quáto, rêmitto, retracto, sedo, sisto, stábilo, suppedito, tardo, têneo, trado, trávio, transmito, turbo, vario, vergo, verto, deverto, reverto, vestio, vidro; and more rarely after many others.

 When it is something indefinite, has been previously expressed in any case, or is easily supplied; as, Ego, ad quos scribem, nescio, seil literas Cic. De quo et tocum egi diligenter, et scripsi ad te. Id. Bene fecit Silius. Id. Ducil in hostem, scil. exercitum. L.v.

REM. 5. An infinitive, or one or more substantive chauses, may supply the place of the accusative after an active verb; as,

Da mihi fallère. Hor. Retdès dulce lóqui, retdès ridère décôrum. Id. Căpiù me esse clèmentem. Cic. Albrivenses situievant ut nièves conscendèrent. Id. Vèreor ne a doctis réprèhendar. Id.Euce, Bacche, sônat. Ovid. Sometimes both constructions are united; as, Di irum misèruntar tuainem ambôrum, et tantos mortàlibus esse làbores. Virg.—Respecting the infinitive with and without a subject-accusative after an active verb, see § 270-273; and for the subjunctive after such verb, see § 278.

- (a.) In such constructions, the subject of the dependent clause is sometimes put in the accusative as the object of the leading verb; as, Nosti Marcellum, quam tardus sid, for Nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cic. Illum, ut vivat, optant. Ter. At the 'go factam, ut minus videas. Plant.
- (b.) An ablative with de may also supply the place of the accusative, by the ellipsis of some general word denoting things, facts, etc., modified by such ablative; as, De républica restra paneis accipe. Sall. Compare a similar omission of a subject modified by de and the ablative, § 209, R. 3, (2.)
- REM. 6. The impersonal verbs of feeling, miseret, penitet, pudet, teadet, piget, miserescit, miserelur, and pertesum est, are followed by an accusative of the person exercising the feeling, and a genitive of the object in respect to which it is exercised. Cf. § 215, (1.); as,

Eōrum nos misèret, We pity them. Cic. The impersonal Véritum est also occurs with such an accusative; Quos non est véritum pōnère, etc. Cic.

- REM. 7. Jŭvat, dēlectat, fallit, fūgit, prætěrit, and děcet, with their compounds, take an accusative of the person; as,
- Te kilàri ánimo esse valde me jūrat, That you are in good spirits greatly delights me. Cic. Fàgit me ad te scrib-re. Cic. Illud allèrum quam sit difficile, te non fàgit. Id. Nec vero Cessirem f-jeflett. Cas. Fàcis, ut te dècet. Ter. So also when used personally; as, Parvum parra dècent. Hor.; but dècet often takes the accusative of the person with the infinitive; as, Hanc màcâlam nos dècet effigére. Ter.; and in comic writers a dative; as, Vobis dècet. Ter.

For mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, after $r\bar{e}fert$ and $int\bar{e}rest$, see § 219, R. 1: and for the accusative by attraction, instead of the nominative, see § 206, (6,) (b.)

§ **230.** Verbs signifying to name or call; to choose, render or constitute; to esteem or reckon, which in the passive voice have two nominatives, are followed in the active voice by two accusatives, one of the *object* and the other of the *predicate*. Cf. § 210, R. 3, (3.); as,

Urbem ex Antiochi patris nomine Antiochiam vécivit, He called the city Antioch, etc. Just. Lüdos fécis me, You make game of me. Plaut. Me consider fécistis. Cic. Iram bêne Emins Intlum dixit institute. Id. Ancum Marcium régem pôpilus créavit. Liv. Sulpicium accüstiorem suum numérabut, non competitorem. Cic. Quam vos testes hábeam. Nep.

Note 1. The following are among the verbs included in this rule, viz. appella, dico, nomino, nucipo, pěrhíbeo, sulúto, seribo and inscribo, văco; capio, censtituo, cro, diclâro, deligao, designo, dico, eligao, facio, efficio, instituo, lego, prodo, reddo, renuncio; dico, dignor, cristimo, habeo, parlico, numero, pato, reperio, intelligo, invênio, se prober or prostare, etc.

NOTE 2. An ablative with ex occurs, though rarely, instead of the accusative of the object: as, Fortūna me, qui liber fuéram, serrum fēcit, e summo infimum. Plaut. Cf. Qui recta prāva fūciumt. Ter.

Note 3. An infinitive may supply the place of the objective accusative; as, Si simu asse vocat crimen. Ovid:—and sometimes of the predicate accusative

also; as, Si rèperire vôcas âmittère certius; aut si scire übi sit rèperire vôcas. Id. So also an adjective may supply the place of the predicate accusative; as, Probuit se dignum suis mājoribus. Cic. Gesarem certiorem făciunt. Cæs.

REMARK 1. After verbs signifying to esteem or reckon, one of the accusatives is often the subject, and the other the predicate, of esse expressed or understood; as,

Eum ăvărum possimus existimare. Cic. Tālem se impērātōrem prabuit. Nep-Prasta te eum, qui mihi es cognitus. Cic. Mercūrium omnium inventōrem artium fērant; huno riārum atque itinērum diocem arbitrantur. Cass.; or an adjective supplies the place of the predicate accusative; as, Ne me existimāris ad mānev him essa propensiorem. Cic.

Note 4. Instead of the predicate accusative, (1) pro with the ablative sometimes follows pâto, dāco, and hābeo, but denotes only an approximation; as Allyaid pro certo hābēre or pātāre. Ea pre talsis dācit. Sall. Alīquem pro hoste hābēre. Cas.—So also in with the ablative; as, Nihū prater virtātēm in bōnis hābēre. Cic. Alīquem in nūmēro hostam dācēre. Cic.—and the ablative without in; as, Uti vis aff inium lōco dācērem. Sall.—So also e or ex with the ablative; as, (Ut) fācēret quod e rēpūblīcā fīdēque suā dācēret. Liv.—Sometimes (2, the genitive; as, Officii dacit exòrāre filhæ patrem. Suct. (See § 211, R. S. (3.) Sc with a genitive or an ablative of price or value; as, Pātāre āluņuem nihlo. Cic. Non hābēo nauci Marsum angārem. Enn.—and sometimes (3) a datīve; as, Quando ta me hābēs despīcātni. Plaut.:—or an adverb; as, Egre hābūtī, filhum dā pro pārente ansum. Liv. And (4) ad or in with the accusative; as, Lōca ad hībernācāla kēgēre. Liv. Alīquem in Patres kēgēre. ld.: or (5) the genitive depending on the ablative of cause, manner, etc.; as, Qui servitātem dēdītiōnis nomīne appellant. Cæs.

REM. 2. Many other verbs, besides their proper accusative, take a second, denoting a purpose, time, character, etc.

Such are do, tribuo, sūmo, pēto, pōno, adjungo, ascrībo, cognosco, accio, fingo, significo, etc.; as,

Quaire ejus fagoe comitem me adjungêrem. Gic. Höminum öpinio söcium me ascribit tuis laudibus. Id. Quos ejo sim tötics pam dedignata müritos. Virg. Hunc igitur regem agnoscimus, qui Philippum dedignatur patrem? Curt. Filiam tuam mihi uxorem posco. Plaut. Petit hunc Saturnia münus. Ovid. Such constructions may often be referred to apposition, or to an ellipsis of esse.

§ 231. Verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, and celo (to conceal), are followed by two accusatives, one of the person, the other of the thing; as,

Hoe te vēhēmenter rōgo. Cic. Illud te ōro, ut, etc. Id. Rōgo te mummos, I ask you for money. Mart. Posce deos vēniam, Ask favor of the gods. Virg. Quum lēgart quis mūšicam dōcuērit Epāminondam, When they shall read who taught Epaminondas music. Nep. Antigōnus iter omnes cēlat, Antigonus con each his route from all. Id. Dēprēcāri doos māla. Sen. Quoticlie Casar Ælurs framentum flagitāre. Cæs. Multa deos ōrans. Virg.

RYMARK 1. This rule includes the verbs of asking and demanding, flagtlo. fllagtlo, obserce, for, exèro, contendo, percontor, posco, rèposo, considio, précor, diprisor, riveo, and interrigo, which, with the accusative of the person, take the accusative of the neuter pronouns hoc, id, illud, quod, quid, more frequently than that of a substantive: of teaching, disreo, élédeco, dedéceo, and ératio, which hast has two accusatives only in the poets. Admineo and consulto are rarely found with two accusatives; as, Considera hane rempire os. Plant. Earn rem nos loves administic. Sail.

Rem. 2. Instead of the accusative of the person, verbs of asking and demanding often take the ablative with ab or es; as, Non dibibam abs to has librar poscère. Cie. Véniam örèmus ab ipso. Virg. Istud vôlèbam ex te percontàri Plant.

Rem. 3 (a.) Instead of the accusative of the thing, the ablative with de as hostium scholtmer as, Sic ègo te eisdem de rêbus interrogem. Cic. De ithic hostium scholtmer édocel. Sail. Bassus noster me de hoc libro célácit. Cic. Cf. \$229 R. 5, (b.)—(b.) Sometimes also instead of the accusative of the thing an inhibitive or an infinitive or subjunctive clause is used; as, Does précâré débêts, ut urbem défendant. Cic. Décaré décam Rullum posthac tacère. [d. Docui id non féri posse. Id. Décaud eum qui vir Sex. Roseins fuérit. Id.—(c.) With verbs of teaching, the instrument by means of which the art is practised is put in the ablative; as, Allquem fidibus décère. Cic. Dôceré diquem armis, Liv. Litéra may be used either in the accusative or in the ablative; as, Te litéras doce. Cic. Doctas Greec silérés. Is

REM. 4. Some verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, are not followed by two accusatives; as, erigo, pêrto, postulo, quero, sitor, sistelor, which, with the accusative of the thing, take an ablative of the person with the preposition ab, de, or er; imbuo, instituo, instano, etc., which are sometimes used with the ablative of the thing, generally without a preposition, and are sometimes otherwise construed; as, Instituére aliquem ad differendum. Cie.

Rem. 5. (a.) Many active verbs with the accusative of the person, take also an accusative denoting in what respect or to what degree the action of the verb is exerted.

(b.) The accusative of degree, etc., is commonly nihil, a neuter pronoun, or a neuter adjective of quantity; as, Non quo me aliquid jūrāre posses. Cic. Pauca pro tempore milites hortātus. Sall. Id adjūta me. Ter. Nēque est te fullēre quidquam. Virg. Cf. § 232, (8.)

Rem. 6. By a similar construction, genus and seus, 'sex,' are sometimes used in the accessative, instead of the genitive of quality; as, Nullas hoc genus vigitass vigitavent. Gell. So, Omnes maliebre seens. Suet. Cf. 211, R. 6, (4.)

§ 232. (1.) Some neuter verbs are followed by an accusative of kindred signification to their own; as,

Vitam jācuudam vieēre, To live a pleasant life, Plaut. Mirum somnilovi somnium, I have dreamed a wonderful dream. Id. Fāvēre hunc fūrorem. Virg. Istom pugnam pugnābo. Plaut. Pugnāre dicendu Mūsis proelia. Hor. Lūsum insolentem lūdēre. Id. Si non servitūtem serviat. Plaut. Quēror hand fāciles questus. Stat. Jūrāvi vērvissumm jusjārandum. Cie. Ignātas jābei ire vias. Val. Flace. So, also, Ire exsēquias, To go to a funeral. Ter. Ire suppētias, To go to cae's assistance. Ire infitias, To deny. This expression is equivalent to infitior, and may like that take an accusative; as, Si hoc ūnum adjunzēro, quod nēmo ent infitios. Nep.: or the accusative with the infinitive; as, Nēque infitius imus Stelliam nostram provinciam esse. Liv. Ut suum gandium gaudēremus. Cœl. ad Cie. Prōfitisei magnum iter. Cie. Polluz ūpra rēdituse viam. Virg. This accusative is usually qualified by an adjective.

(2.) Verbs commonly neuter are sometimes used transitively, and are then followed by an accusative.

Accusatives are thus used with ôleo and sôpio, and their compounds, videlico, réspio; as, Olet unguenta, Ile smells of perfumes. Ter. Olère pérègentury. To luve a foreign smell. Cic. Oràtièmes rédolentes antiquitâtem. Id. Mida herbam etm sopiont, The honey tates of that herb. Plin. Use a pieum réspio as. Id. So, Sitio honores. Cic. Carnem plait. Liv. Claudius âleam stadiosissime Itàsil. Suet. Erumpère diu coercitam iram în hostes. Liv. Libros cripitare. Ovid. Pretire verba. Liv. Nee cox hominem sónat. Virg. Sădăre mella. Id. Morientem nômine clâmat. Id. Quis post vina grâvem militiam aut paupiciem cripată Hov. Omnes âma mânet noca. Id. Imprătă mâni crimen horreo. Cic. Ego mens quêror fortimas. Plant. Virere Bacchâmâla. Juv. Pastorem soltôret ali Cycloja, régolabat. Hor. So the passive, Nune agrestem Cycloja negotur. Id. Xerves quam măre ambalteriset, terram nâcigasset. Cic. Qui stadium currit. Id. Commania jux migrâre. Id. Te vole colloga, Plant. Ea dissérier mânia. Cio.

Ctorý-lon arděbat Alexin. Virg. Stýgias jūrāvimus undas. Ovid. Nāvtyat æquor Virg. Currimus æquor. Id. Pascuntur sylvas. Id.

- Note 1. Accusatives are found in like manner after ambūlo, calleo, doleo, ēquito, fleo, gaudeo, gēno, gioliore, horreo, letor, latro, maito, palleo, piveo, pērco, dēpēreo, procedo, quēro, rileo, sileo, stibio, taceo, trēmo, rēpido, vādo, vēnio, etc.
- (3.) Neuter verbs and sometimes adjectives also may be followed by an accusative denoting in what respect, or to what degree, the feeling, condition, etc., is manifested; as,
- Nihil libbro. Cic. Num id lacrimat virgo? Does the maid weep on that accent? Ter. Multa alia peccat. Cic. Quicquid delivant réges, plectuatur Achiri. Hor. Nec ta id indignairi posses. Liv. Illud multi letandum rideo. Cic. Illud valde tibi assentior. Id. Idem gloriari. Id. Hace gloriaris. Liv. Hoc stade' unum. Hor.—So, Id operam do, I strive for this. Ter. Consilium petis, quid libi sim auctor. Cic. Quod quidam auctores sund, Which is attested by some authors. Liv. Nil nostri mistrive? Ving.—Nitil Românae plebis similis. Liv. Schatus nihil sône intentus. Sall. These limiting accusatives have commonly the force of adverbs, particularly mild, which is used like an emphatic ner in the sense of 'in no way,' 'in no respect.' So non mild, 'to some extent,' 'in some measure.'
- Note 2. In the above and similar examples, the prepositions ob, propter, per, ad, etc., may often be supplied. This construction of neuter verbs is most common with the neuter accusatives id, quid, quidquam, aliquid, quicquid, quod, nhil, nonnthil, Idem, illud, tantum, quantum, hunn, multa, pauca, alia, eliera, omnia, etc. Ct. § 266, R. 16, N.
- § 233. Many verbs are followed by an accusative depending upon a preposition with which they are compounded.
- Active verbs compounded with trans, ad, and circum, have sometimes two accusatives, one depending upon the verb, the other upon the preposition; as,

Omnem equitatum pontem transdacit, He leads all the cavalry over the bridge. Caes. Agoslaus Hellespontum copias trājēcit. Nep. Petrėius jusjūrandum ad tipit Afraium. Cees. Roseillum Pompeius omnia sua præstiu circumducit. Id So, Pontus scipulos sūperjācit undam. Virg. So, also, adverto and indaco with animum; as, Id animum advertit. Cæes. Id quod animum induxerat pendisper non tenut. Cic. So, also, tujicio in Plautus—Ego te mānum injicium.

(2.) Some other active verbs take an accusative in the passive voice depending upon their prepositions; as,

Múgicas accingier artes, To prepare oneself for magic arts. Virg. In proce writers the ad is in such cases repeated; as, accing ad considition. Liv. Classis circumvilitur arcem. Id. Quod anguis domi vectem circumjectus fuisset. Cic. Locum pratervectus sum. Id.

(3.) Many neuter verbs, especially verbs of motion, or cf rest in a place, when compounded with prepositions which govern an accusative, become transitive, and accordingly take an accusative; as,

Gentes que mare illud udjácent, The nations which border upon that sea. Nep. Obiquitare agrane. Curt. Incédunt mestos lécos. Tac. Translai finamas. Ovid. Succèdire tecta. Cic. Ludorum dibus, qui cognitionem intervénérant. Tac. Adre provinciam. Suct. Câreat ne proclium ineat. Cic. Ingrédi iter pédibus Cic. Epiciar hort quos médo pretéribanus. Id.

Note. To this rule belong many of the compounds of ambilo, cēdo, curro, ro, ēquito fluo, xiādier, (ābor, no and māto, rēpo, sālio, scaudo, xādo, rēbor, rēnio, vālo; rābo jāo, sēder, sisto, sto, etc., with the prepositions included in § 224, and eith ez.

REMARK 1. Some neuter verbs compounded with pr positions which govern an ablative, in like manner become transitive, and are followed by an accusative; as,

Nëminem conveni, I met with no one. Cic. Qui sŏciëtātem coiëris. Id. Arersāri hōnōres. Ovid. Ursi arbōrem ārersi dēripunt. Plin. Elorni crāpūlam. Cic. Egressus exslitum. Tac. Erdūtjue cēler rīpun. Vīz. Excidēre nūmērum. Tac. Exire līmen. Ter. Tībur āquæ fertile præṭluunt. Hor.

REM. 2. After verbs both active and neuter, compounded with prepositions which take an accusative, the preposition is often repeated or one of similar signification is used; as,

Cesar se ad nëminem adjunxit. Cic. Multitudinem trans Rhënum in Gulium transdicëre. Caes.—In Galliam invisit Antônius. Cic. Ad me âdhre paosaum mêmini. Id. Orritor përagrat per ainmos hôminum. Id. Në in sënātum accédèrem. Id. Rêgiaa ad templum incessit. Virg. Juxta gënitörem adstat Laënia. Id. Fines extra quos egrèdi non possim. Cic. A dative instead of the accusative often follows such compounds, according to § 224. Circum is not repeated.

Note. Some verbal nouns and verbal adjectives in *bundus* are followed by an accusative, like the transitive verbs from which they are derived; as,

Quid thi hac réceptio ad te est mem virum? Wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? Plant. Quid thi, malam, me, and quid évo âgam, carátio 'st? Id. Quid thi hano daltio est? Id. Quid thi hano mem? Quid thi hano daltio est? Id. Quid thi hano ritabundus castra hostium mem? Quid thi hano daltio tuctio 'st? Id. Hanno ritabundus castra hostium consilesque. Liv. Mithridates Komānnum meditābundus bellum. Just. Mirābundus vanum spēciem. Liv. Pēphlābundus agros. Sisenn. Carnīficem imaginābundus. App.

- § 234. A verb in the passive voice has the same government as in the active, except that the accusative of the active voice becomes the nominative of the passive.
- Note 1. The accusative of the person with the infinitive, after verbs of suying and commanding, may become the subject of the passive voice; as, Active, Dico regeme uses justum:—Passive, Rex dictur justus esse. Act. Jaboo to redure:—Pass. Jaboris redure: the construction in the passive being the same as though rigem and te had depended immediately upon dice and jaboo.—So, also, when the accusative of the person is the object of the verb and the infinitive stands as the accusative of the thing. Cf. § 27.0, N.
- I. When a verb, which in the active voice takes an accusative both of the person and of the thing, is changed to the passive form, the accusative of the person becomes the nominative, and the accusative of the thing is retained; as,

Rīgātus est sententiam, He was asked his opinion. Liv. Interrogātus causam.
Tac. Sēgētes ālimentique dobita dīres posebātur hāmus. Ovid. Motus docēri
gaude: Ionicos mātūra rirgo. Hor. Onnes belli artes ēdoctus. Liv. Nosne hos
vēlītos tam diu? Ter. Multa in extis monēnau. Cic.

Note 2. The accusative of the thing after clotus and clotus is rare; and after cēlāri it is generally a neuter pronoun; as hoc or id cēlābar; of this I was kept in ignorance; but it is found also with the person in the dative; as, Id Alcibiadi diatius cēlāri non pētail. Nep. Alcib. 5. Cēlo, and especially its passive, generally takes de with the ablative.

REMARK 1. (a.) Induo and exuo, though they do not take two accusatives in the active voice, are sometimes followed by an accusative of the thing in

the passive; as, Induitur âtras vestes, She puts on sable garments. Ovid. Thorace indutus. Virg. Exita est Rôma sènectam. Mart. So inducor and cingor; as, Ferrum cingitur. Virg. So récingitur anguem. Ovid.

(b.) When two accusatives follow an active verb compounded with trans the passive retains that which depends upon the preposition; as, Belgae Rhēnum antiquitus transducti. Caes.

REM. 2. The future passive participle in the neuter gender with est, is sometimes, though rarely, followed by an accusative; as, Multa növis rébus quum sit ågendum. Lucr. Quam (viam) nöbis ingrédiendum est. Cic.

II. Adjectives, verbs, and perfect participles, are sometimes followed by an accusative denoting the part to which their signification relates; as,

Nādus mambra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os hāmērospas deo similis. 1d. Parā ģraus. Tac. Tribāni suam vicem anzū. Liv. Trēmit artus. Virg. Cētēra parce puer bello. 1d. Sibila colla famentem. 1d. Explēri mentem nēpatt. 1d. Grijneus irritur ōcalos. Ovid. Pieti seita Libbei. Virg. Collis frontem lēniter fustīgātus. Cess. Animum incensus. Liv. Obtus faciem suo cruore. Tach

REMARK 1. In this construction an ablative is often joined with the perfect participle; as, Miles fractus membra läböre. Hor. Dextérum genu läpide ictus. Suct. Advorsum femur trägülä gräviter ictus. Liv.

Rem. 2. This is a Greek construction, and is usually called the *limiting* or *Greek accusative*. It is used instead of an ablative of limitation, (§ 250,) and occurs most frequently in poetry.

REM. 2. A limiting accusative instead of the ablative is found also in a few ordinary expressions, as in partim (for partem), vicem, magnan and maxima martem, instead of magna or maxima ex parte, or the adverb fire; as, Muximan partem lucte vivant. Caes. Magnam partem ex icanbis nostra constat oratio. Cic. Livy has magna pars, viz. Nimide, magna pars agrestes.—So civira and reliqua are joined to adjectives in the sense of civiris, for the rest, in other respects; as, Proximum regnum, cetters griginum, ab sin parte hand sitis prosperum fult. Liv. So cettern similis, cettera bonus. A te bis terree summum literas accipi. Cic.—So, also, in the expressions til temporis; id, hoc or tiden editis, illud hore, for echapore, ed actate, etc.; id young mognus, quod young.

III. Some neuter verbs which are followed by an accusative, are used in the passive voice, the accusative becoming the subject, according to the general rule of active verbs; as,

Tertia vivitur ætas. Ovid. Bellum militäbitur. Hor. Dormirur hiems. Mart. Multa peccantur. Cic. Aditur Gnossius Minos. Sen. Ne ab omnibus circumaisteritur. Cws. Hostes invädi posse. Sall. Campus öbitur àquā. Ovid. Plūres istenutur gratice. Cic. Ea res silētur. Id.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 235. (1.) Twenty six prepositions are followed by the accusative.

These are ād, ulversus or adversum, antē, āpād, circā or circum, circīter, cīs or citrā, contrā, ergā, ertā, infrā, intēr, intrā, juztā, bb, pēnēs, pēr, post, pōnē, prætēr, propēt, sēcundum, suprā, trans, ultrā; as,

Ad templum non aquae Palládis ibant,—to the temple. Virg. Adversus hostes, Against the enemy. Liv. Germani qui cis Rhènum incolunt,—this side the Rhine Caes. Quam tantum résident intra miros mili. Cic. Principio rérum impérium piènes règes èrat. Just. Templum pionam propter àquam. Virg. Inter àgendum, Id. Ante dòrnandum. Id. Respecting the signification of some of the preceding prepositions see § 195, R. 5, etc.

REMARK 1. Cis is generally used with names of paces; citra with other words also; as, Cis Tuwam. Cic. Cis Pādum. Liv. Paucos cis menses. Plant Cira Vēliam. Cic. Citra sătělětem, Not to satiety. Col. Citra j'aligātionem. Cels. Citra Trōjāna tempora. Ovid.

REM. 2. Inter, signifying between, applies to two accusatives jointly, and sometimes to a single plural accusative; us, Inter me et Scipionem. Cic. Inter nos, Among ourselves. Id. Inter fideirios, Among the scythe-makers. Cic. When it denotes time it signifies during, and more rarely at; as, Inter pissum puppe tempus. Liv. Inter canom. Cic.

REM. 3. Ante and post are commonly joined with concrete official titles, when used to indicate time, rather than with the corresponding abstract nouns; as, ante or post Ciceronem consulem, rather than ante or post consulatum Ciceronis.

(2.) In and sub, denoting motion or tendency, are followed by the accusative; denoting situation, they are followed by the ablative; as,

Via dheit in urbern, The way conducts into the city. Virg. Noster in te dinor. Cic. Callimichi ipigramma in Cleombrotum est—on or concerning Cleombrotus. Id. Exercitus sub jingum missus est, The army was sent under the yoke. Cæs. Migna mei sub terrus ibit imago. Virg. Médiā in urbe, In the midst of the city. Ovid. In his full Ariovistus. Cæs. Bella sub Iliaris mænibus gérère, To wage war under the Trojan walls. Ovid. Sub nocte silenti. Virg.

REM. 4. The most common significations of in, with the accusative, are, into, to, towards, until, for, against, about, concerning,—with the ablative, in, on, upon, among. In some instances, in and sub, denoting tendency, are followed by the ablative, and, denoting situation, by the accusative; as, In conspecture on the virue. Phed. Nationes que in amientiam pépalit Romain, ditionemque essent. Id. Sub jügo dictator hostes misit. Liv. Hostes sub montem consiliese. Case.

Rem. 5. In and sub, in different significations, denoting neither tendency nor situation, are followed sometimes by the accusative, and sometimes by the ablative; as, Amor crescit in horas. Ovid. Hostilem in modum. Cic. Quod in bono servo dici posset. Id. Sub ed conditione. Ter. Sub prend mortis. Suet.

Rem. 6. In expressions relating to time, sub, denoting at or in, usually takes the ablative; as, Sub adventu Romanorum. Liv. Sub lice. Ovid. Sub tempore. Lucan. Denoting near, about, just before or just after, it takes the accusative; as, Sub linem. Virg. Sub limina prima. Hor. Sub line herus inquit. Id.

REM. 7. In is used with neuter adjectives in the accusative in forming adverbial phrases; as, In universum, In general. In totam, Wholly. So, in plenum; in incertum; in tantum; in quantum; in majus; in melius; in omnin, in all respects, etc.

(3.) Super, when denoting place or time, is followed by the accusative, and sometimes poetically by the ablative; but when it signifies on, about, or concerning, it takes the ablative. With the accusative super signifies over, above, besides or in addition to; with numerals, more than; as,

Süper läbeutem culmina teeti, ending over the top of the house. Virg. Süper tress mõdius. Liv. Süper morbum ettam fames affecit exercitum. Id. Siper tinèro prosternit grämline corpus, He stretches his body on the tender grass. Virg. Multa süper Priamo rogitams süper Hectöre multa, concerning Priam, etc. 1d.

REM. 8. The compound dishper is found with the accusative, and inshper with the accusative and the ablative.

(4.) Subtractionary layers the accusative but comparing in

(4.) Subter generally takes the accusative, but sometimes, in poetry, the ablative; as,

Subter terras, Under the earth. Liv. Subter densā testūdīne. Virg.

(5.) Clam is followed by either the accusative or the ablative; as,

Clum vos, Without your knowledge. Cic. Clum patrem. Ter. Clum matrem summ. Plant. Clum wobis. Cass. Neque potest clum me esse. Plant. Clum uxore med. Id. Its diminutive clumcalem is once followed by the accusative,

clanculum patres. Ter.

Rem. 9. The adverbs versus or versum and usque are sometimes annexed to an accusative, principally of place, which depends on ad or in, and sometimes the preposition is omitted; us, Ad Oceanum versus próficieci. Coes. Fügam ad si versum. Sall. In Galliam versus castra mócire. Id.—Usque ad Namantam. Cic. Usque in Pumphyliam. Id. Ad noctem usque. Plaut.—Brundisium versus. Cic. Terminos usque Libyte. Just. Usque Ennam proficti. Cic. Versus is always placed after the accusative: us, Trans. Alpes usque transfertur. Cic. Usque either ab or car with the ablative; as, Ab septematione versus. Varr. A fundamento asque môcisti môre. Plant. Usque ex ultimă Spriâ. Cic. Usque a puéritiă. Ter. Usque a Româlo. Cic. Usque a mâne ad vesperum. Plata Româlo. Cic. Usque a mâne ad vesperum. Plata Româlo. Cic. Usque a mâne ad vesperum. Plata

REM. 10. Prepositions are often used without a noun depending upon them out such noun may usually be supplied by the mind; as, Multis post unis.

i. e. post id tempus. Cic. Circum Concordiæ, scil. ædem. Sall.

REM. 11. The accusative, in many constructions, is supposed to depend on a preposition understood; as, Quid opus est pland? i. e. propter quid? why? i. q. car? or quare? Gic. So, Quid me sestemen? id. But it is not easy, in every case, to say what preposition should be supplied. For the accusative without a preposition after neuter verbs, see § 232. For the accusative of limitation, see § 234, II.

ACCUSATIVE OF TIME AND SPACE.

§ 236. Nouns denoting duration of time, or extent of space, are put, after adjectives and verbs, in the accusative, and sometimes after verbs in the ablative; as,

ACC. Appius cecus multos annos fuit, Appius was blind many years. Cic. Büdnum Läödicre fui. Id. Dies tötos de rirâte disserunt. Id. Te jam annum audientem Crătippum. Id.—Decrécrient intercelărium quinque et quădrăginta dies tongum. Id.—Quum übessem ab Amāno iter inius diei. Id. Tres pitent cak spătium una amplius ulnas. Virg. (Cf. § 256, R. 6.) A portu stădia centum e. riginti processimus. Cic.—Duas fussus quindecim pêdes lătas perduzit,—two tateles fifteen feet broad. Ces. Fusses quinos pêdes alte. Id. Forâmânu longu pêdes tres semis. Cato. Orbem oleărium crassum digtos sex fâcio. Id.—Ant.. Vizit annis undetriginta. Suet. Quătnordecim annis exsitum tolărăcui. Tac. Tirinta annis vizit Panetius. Cic.—Ecrettus Rômânus tridui timere abfuit ab anne Tănai. Tac. Æscălopii templum quinque millibus passuum din lans. Liv.

Note 1. The ablative denoting extent of time and space is rarely used by Cicero, and less frequently than the accusative by other writers.

Note 2. The accusative denoting extent of space sometimes follows the abverbs longe, alte, etc.; as, Compestris licus alte duos pèdes et somissem infoaiendus est. Colum. Vercingétorix licum castris déligit ab Ava. teo longe millia pussuum sédécim. Cas.

Note 3. (a.) Old, in reference to the time which a person has lived, is expressed in Latin by nālus, with an accusative of the time; as, Dēcessil Alexander measem ānam, annos tres et triginta nālus. Just. (b.) A person's age may also be expressed without nālus by a genitive of the time closely connected with his name, according to § 211, R. 6; as, Alexander ambrum et triginta dēcessil. (c.) Older or younger than a certain age is expressed by prefixing to the accusative or genitive of the definite age the ad-

verbs plus o: minus, or the adjectives mājor or minor, either with or without quam. See § 256, R. 6 and 7.—Sometimes, also, the ablative depends on the comparative; as, Minor viginti quinque annis nātus. Nep. Minor triginta annis nātu. Cic. Biennio quam nos major. Id. Cf. § 256, R. 16. (1.)

Remark 1. Nouns denoting time or space, used to limit other nouns, are put in the genitive or ablative. See § 211, R. 6.

REM 2. A term of time not yet completed may be expressed by an ordinal number; as, Nos vicesimum jam diem patimur hibbescère àciem hōrum aucimitats. Cic. Pāvāco bello duodécimum annum Itālia ūrēbātur. Liv. Hence in the passive, Nauc tertia viritur actas. Ovid.

REM. 3. The accusative or ablative of space is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending on it remains; as, Castra que ābērant bīdui, scil. spātion or spātio. Oic.

REM. 4. To denote a place by its distance from another, the ablative is con monly used; as, Millibus pressum see a Carsôris castris considit. Cas.; but sometimes the accusative; as, Tria passuum millia ab ipsă urbe castra păsuit. Liv. The only words used for this purpose in the ablative alone are spătio and intervallo; as, Quindicum ferme millium spătio castra ab Tarento păsuit. Id.

Note 4. For abhine and a cardinal number, with the accusative or ablative of past time, see § 253, R. 2. For the ablative denoting difference of time or space, see § 256, R. 16.

REM. 5. A preposition is sometimes expressed before an accusative of time or space, but it generally modifies the meaning; as, Quem per dicem annes diations, ... during ten years. Cic.

Rem. 6. When the place from which the distance is reckoned is not mentioned, ab is sometimes placed before the ablative of distance, as if this depended on the preposition; as, A millibus passaum dubbus castra posucrunt, Two miles from the place, or, Two miles off. Cas.

REM. 7. An accusative of weight also occurs when expressed by libram or libras in connection with pondo. Cf. § 211, R. 6. (4.)

ACCUSATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 237. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of the town *in which the motion ends* is put in the accusative without a preposition; as,

Rēgūlus Carthāginem rēdūt, Regulus returned to Carthage. Cic. Cápuam flectii tier, He turns his course to Capua. Liv. Calpurnius Rōmam proficisci-tur. Sall. Romam ērat nauciātum. Cic.

REMARK 1. The accusative, in like manner, is used after iter with sum, idebeo, etc.; as, Rerest milti Lânûvinn. Cic. Casărem iter hâbère Cāpnam. Id And even after sum alone; as, Omnia illa münicipia, que sunt a Vibône Brundisium. Cic. So with a verbal noun; as, Adrentus Rōmam. Liv. Rēdītus Rōmam. Civ.

REM. 2. (a.) The preposition to be supplied is in, denoting to or into, which is sometimes expressed; as, In Ephesun àbii. Plaut. Ad, before the name of a town, denotes direction towards it; as, Ret adirpère ad Müttaam. Cic.; and also its vicinity; as, Addiescentidus miles profectus sum ad Cāpuam; i. e. in castra ad Cāpuam. Id. So, Lælius cum classe ad Bruadisum vénit. Cass. Cæsar ad Gèneva. pervénit. Id. Quam ēgo ad Herāclelam accēdērem. Cic.

(b.) When urbs, oppidum, locus, etc., follow the names of towns as appositions, they generally take a preposition; as, Dimitratus se contail Turquinos, in urbem Etrisrice #birentissimam. Cic. Ad Cirtam oppidum iter constituum. Sall.—So also when the name of the town is qualified by an adjective; as, Magnum

iter ad doctas proficisci cogor Athenas. Prop. But the poets and later prose writers sometimes omit the preposition; as, Ovid, Her. 2, 83.

REM. 3. Instead of the accusative, a dative is sometimes, though rarely, used; as, Carthagini nuncios mittam. Hor. Cf. § 225, IV. and R. 2.

Rem. 4. Domus in both numbers, and rus in the singular, are put in the accusative, like names of towns; as,

Ite domum, Go home. Virg. Galli domos abierant,-had gone home. Liv. Rus ibo. I will go into the country. Ter.

Note. (a.) When domus is limited by a genitive or a possessive adjective pronoun, it sometimes takes a preposition: with other adjectives, the preposi-tion is generally expressed; as, Non introvo in nostram domum. Plaut. Venisse in domum Leccæ. Cic. Ad eam domum profecti sunt. Id. In domos superas wandëre cëra fuit. Ovid. Rarely, also, when not limited; as, Secrêtes philoso-pnuom in domos introducui. Cic. So, lieren suum. App., or ad litren suam. Cic. Caricos in Albense rus inferre. Plin. Quum in sua rūra vēnērum. Cic. With the possessor's name in the genitive, either domum or in domum is used; as, Pomponii domum venisse. Cic. In domum Mælii tela inféruntur. Liv.

(b.) Domus is sometimes used in the accusative after a verbal noun; as, Domum reditionis spe sublata. Cas. So, Itio domum. Cic. Concursus domum. Cæs. Cf. R. 1.

REM. 5. (a.) Before the names of countries and of all other places in which the motion ends, except those of towns, and domus and rus, the preposition is commonly used; as, Ex Asia transis in Europam. Curt. Te in Epīrum vēnisse gaudeo. Cic. But it is sometimes omitted; as, Dēvēmunt spēluncam. Virg. Lēvēnēre locos. Id. Tūmūlum antiquæ Cērēris sedemque sacrātam vēnīmus. Id. Dis Ceropios portus. Ovid. So, also, before names of countries, especially those ending in us; as, £gyptus, Bospórus, Chersônisus, £pirus, Pellopomeisus, etc. So, also, Illyricum profectus. Cæs. Macédoniam pervénit. Liv. Africam transiturus. Id. So, Tacitus construes even names of nations, when used, as they often are, for those of countries; as, Ductus inde Cangos exercitus. Deros and authim securum perceptit. So, Virgil Nos himse Afros. Pliny has Insibes ad patrium regnum pertadit. So, Virgil, Nos Ibimus Afros.—Pliny has, Insulas Rubri Măris nāvigant.

(b.) Before the names of small islands the preposition is frequently omitted; as, Pausaniam cum classe Cyprum miserunt. Nep.: but rarely before the names of the larger islands; as, Sardinia, Britannia, Creta, Eubæa, Sicilia.

(c.) Before accusatives of any words denoting locality after verbs of motion, the poets omit the preposition; as, Ităliam—Lāvīniāque vēnit lītora. Virg.— The old accusative foras is used, like names of towns, to denote the place whither, while foris denotes the place where; as, Vade foras. Mart. Exit foras. Plaut.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS, AND INTERJECTIONS.

§ 238. 1. (a.) The adjectives propior and proximus, with their adverbs propius and proxime, like their primitive prope, are often joined with the accusative; as,

Ipse propior montem suos collocat. Sall. Crassus proximus mare Oceanum hiemarat. Cæs.—Libyes propius mare Africum agitabant. Sall. Proxime His-pānium Mauri sunt. Id.

(b.) The adverbs pridie and postridie are also often followed by the accusative; as, Pridie eum diem. Cic. Pridie idus. Id. Postridie ludos. Id.—(c.) Au acc isative somet mes follows intus and cominus; as, Intus domum. Plaut. Agrestes cominus re sues, scil. in. Prop.

- REMARK 1. The accusative with pridie and postridie is by sinc referred to aute and post understood. For the genitive after these words, see § 212, R. 4, N. 6.—Respecting versus, usque, exadversus (-um) and sēcus with the accusative, see § 195, R. 3: and § 235, R. 3.
- Rem. 2. The adverb bene, by the elipsis of valere jabeo, is sometimes followed by the accusative in forms of drinking health; as, Bene vos, bene nos, bene to, bene nos, bene time Stephanium! Plaut. Bene Messalam, a health to Messala. Tibull. It is also construed with the dative. See § 228, 1.
- In exclamations, the noun or pronoun which marks the object of the fecting is put in the accusative either with or without the interjections, O! ah! heu! eheu! ecce! en! hem! pro! or vc!as,

En quatuor aras! ecce duas tibi Dephni! Behold four altars! lo, two for the Chaphnis! Virg. Eccum! eccos! eccilium! for ecce eum! ecce eos! ecce illum! Plaut. O præclierum custóden! Cic. Hen me infélicem! Ter. Pro Dehm kômimunque fidem! Cic. Ah me, me! Catull. Eheu me misčrum! Ter. Hem astitias! Id. Væ te! Plaut. Væ me! Sen. Misčram me! Ter. Hôminem grávem et civem ôgrégium! Cic. Cf. § 228, 3.

Note. The accusative after interjections is supposed to depend on some verb of emotion to be supplied.

SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 239. The subject of the infinitive mood is put in the accusative; as,

Möleste Pompeium id ferre conståbat, That Pompey took that ill, was evident. Cic. Eos hoc nömine appelläri fas est. Id. Miror te ad me nihil scribère, I wonder that you do not write to me. Cn. Mag. in Cic. Campos jübet esse pitentes. Virg.

Note 1. In historical writing the present infinitive has sometimes its subject in the nominative. Cf. § 209, R. 5.

- REMARK 1. The subject of the infinitive is omitted when it precedes in the genitive or dative case; as, Est ādolescentis mājōres nātu vērērī, scil. eum. Cic. Expēdit bōnas esse vōbis, scil. vos. Ter; and rarely when it precedes in the accusative; as, Ea pōpālus ketāri et mērito dīcēre fiēri; and also when its place is supplied by a possessive pronoun expressed or understood; as, Nos fuit consilium (meum)—servibbus officiis intentum atātem āgēre (scil. me). Sal.
- Rem. 2. A substantive pronoun is also sometimes omitted before the infinitive, when it is the subject of the preceding verb; as, Pollicitus sum susceptarum (esse), scil. me, I promised (that I) would undertake. Ter. Sed reddere posse negabot, scil. se. Virg.
- REM. 3. The subject of the infinitive is often omitted, when it is a general word for person or thing; as, Est áliud irācundum esse, áliud irātum, scil. hóminem. Cic. See § 269, R. 1.
- REM. 4. The subject-accusative, like the nominative, is often wanting. See (209, R. 3. The subject of the infinitive may be an infinitive or a clause. See (269, R. 3.
- Note 2. For the verbs after which the subject-accusative with the infinitive is used see § 272. For the accusative in the predicate after infinitives neuter and passive, se § 210.

VOCATIVE.

§ 240. The vocative is used, either with or without an interjection, in addressing a person or thing.

REMARK 1. The interjections O, heu, and pro (proh), also ah, au (hau), them, tho, ehodum, eia (heia), hem, heus, hui, io, and ohe, are followed by the vocative; as,

O formõse puer! O beautiful boy! Virg. Heu virgo! Id. Pro sancte Jūpiter! Cic. Ah stulte! Ter. Heus Syre! Id. Öhe übelle! Mart. Ehodum böne vir. Ter.—Urbem, mi Rūfe, cole. Cic. Quinctili Vare, légiones redde. Suet. Quo moriture ruis? Hor. Macte virtule esto. Cic.

Rem. 2. The vocative is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending upon it remains; as, O miséræ sortis! scil. hómines. Lucan.

Note. The vocative forms no part of a proposition, but serves to designate the person to whom the proposition is addressed.

ABLATIVE.

The ablative denotes certain relations of nouns and pronouns, all of which are expressed in English by means of prepositions. In Latin this case is sometimes accompanied by a preposition, and sometimes stands alone. Cf. § 37, 6.

ABLATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 241. Eleven prepositions are followed by the ablative.

These are ā, (or ŭb, abs), absquĕ, dē; cōram, pŭlam, cum, ex, (ē); sĭnĕ, tĕnŭs, prō, and præ; as,

Ab illo tempòre, From that time. Liv. A scribendo, From writing. Cio. Cum exercitu, With the army. Sall. Certis de causis, For certain reasons. Cic. Ex f ügö, From flight. Id. Pālam popālo. Liv. Sine libbre. Cic. Căpālo tênus. Virg. Cantābit vācuus coram latrone viator. Juv. cf. § 195, 5.

Note. Of the prepositions followed by the ablative, five signify removal or separation, $\forall iz$. \hat{a} ($\hat{a}\hat{b}$ or $a\hat{b}s$), $d\hat{e}$, \hat{e} (or ex), absyne and $sin\hat{e}$.

-Remark 1. $T\bar{e}nus$ is always placed after its case. It sometimes takes the genitive phral. See § 221, III.—Cum is always appended to the ablative of the personal pronouns me, te, se, $mb\bar{s}s$, and comnonly to the ablatives of the relative pronoun, quo, $qu\bar{a}$, quibus, and qui. Cf. § 133, 4, and § 136, R. 1.

REM. 2. The adverbs procul and simul are sometimes used with an ablative, which depends on the prepositions a or ab, and cum understood, as, Procud mari, Far from the sea. Liv. Simul nobis habitat. Ovid. Procud dibio. Suet. The prepositions are frequently expressed; as, Procud a tervā. Cic. Procul a patriā. Virg. Tēcum simul. Plaut. Vöbiscum simul. Plaut. Co.—So, rarely, come. Qui me in terrā caque fortānātus ērit. Plaut. Cf. Novi caque omnia tēcum. Id.

REM. 3. Some of the above prepositions, like those followed by the accusative, are occasionally used without a noun expressed; as, Quum coram samus. Cic. Cum fratre an sine. Id. Cf. § 235, R. 10.

Rem. 4. The ablative follows also the prepositions in and sub, when they amer to the question 'where?' super, when it signifies 'on' or 'concerning', and sometimes clam and subter. Cf. § 235, (2.)—(5.)

Rem. 5. In is generally joined with the ablative after verbs of placing, as, pono, loco, collèco, statuo, constituo, and consido; as, Et sale tabentes artus in those pound. Virg.—So, also, after verbs signifying to have, hold, or regard

as, hābeo, dāco, nāmēro, etc.—After verbs of assembling, concealing, and including, in is followed by either the accusative or the ablative.—After dēfīgo, inscribo, insculpo, incido, and insēro, in is usually joined with the ablative.

§ 242. Many verbs compounded with \check{ab} , $d\hat{e}$, ex, and $s\check{u}per$ are followed by an ablative depending upon the preposition; as,

Abesse urbe, To he absent from the city. Cic. Abire sedibus, To depart from their habitations. Tac. Ut se malidicits non abstineant. Cic. Detraidant never scopialo, They push the ships from the rock. Virg. Naie egressus est. New Excedere finibus. Liv. Casar pradio supersedere statuit. Cass. Tributo ac delectu supersessum est. Cic. So the adjective extorris; as, Extorris patria, domac. Sall. And so the verbal eruptio, as, Mutina eruptio. Cic.

REMARK 1. The preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as, Detrahère de tuâ fāmā numquam cogitāvi. Cic. Ex ōcūlis ābierunt. Liv. Exire a patriā. Cic. Exire de vilā. 1d. Cf. § 224, R. 4.

Rem. 2. These compound verbs are often used without a noun; but, in many cases, it may be supplied by the mind; as, Equites degressi ad pedes soil. equis. Liv. Abire ad Deos, soil. equis. Cic.

REM. 3. Some verbs compounded with ab, de, and ex, instead of the abla tive, are sometimes followed by the dative. See § 224, R. 1 and 2. Some compounds, also, of neuter verbs, occur with the accusative. See § 233, R. 1.

ABLATIVE AFTER CERTAIN NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, AND VERBS.

§ 243. Opus and ūsus, signifying need, usually take the ablative of the thing needed; as,

Anctoritate tuā nöbis ŏpus est, We need your authority. Cic. Nunc ănimis ōpus, nunc pectore furno. Virg. Nāves, quibus consăli ūsus non esset, Ships, tor which the consultad no occasion. Liv. Nunc vīrībus ūsus, nunc mānībus rāpidis. Virg.

REMARK I. (a.) Opus and ūsus are sometimes followed by the ablative of a perfect participle; as, Mātīrāto ōpus est, There is need of haste. Liv. Usus facto est mih. Ter. Ubi summus impērātur non ādeta ad exercitum, citus, quod mon facto est ūsus, fit, quum quod facto est ūpus. Plaut. After ōpus, a noun is sone-times expressed with the participle; as, Opus fuil Hirtio convento,—of meeting or, to meet, § 274, R. 5. Cic. Opus sibi esse domino ējus invento. Liv.—or a sipine is used; as, Ita dictu ōpus est, It is necessary to say, I must say. Ter. Instead of the ablative with ōpus est, an infinitive, either alone or with a subject accusative, or ut with a subject accusation.

(b.) Opus and $\bar{u}sus$, though nouns, are seldom limited by the genitive. In a few passages they are construed with the accusative. See § 211, R. 11.

REM. 2. Opus is sometimes the subject and sometimes the predicate of est, usus, which seldom occurs except in ante-classic poets, is, with only rare exceptions, the subject only. The person to whom the thing is needful is put in the dative; (§ 226.) With opus the thing needed may either be the subject of the verb in the nominative or accusative, or follow it in the ablative: as, Dux nöbis opus est. Cic. Verres multa sibi opus este aibed. Id.; or, Duce nöbis opus est. The former construction is most common with neuter adjectives and pronouns; as, Quod non opus est, osse cárum est. Cato apud Sen.—In the predicate opus acd ūsus are commonly translated 'needful' or 'necessary. Cf. & 210, R. 5.

Note. For the abiative of charatter, quality, etc., limiting a noun, see § 211, R. 6.

§ 244. Dignus, indignus, contentus, præditus, and fritus, are followed by the ablative of the object; as,

Dignus lande, Worthy of praise. Hor. Vox populi mājestāte indigna, A speech tabecoming the dignity of the people. Cass. Bestia eo contenta non quaerunt amplius. Cic. Homo scelere præditus. Id. Plērique ingēnio frēti. Id.—Sq. Æquum est me atque illo. Plaut.

REMARK 1. The adverb digne, in one passage, takes the ablative; Peccat iter nostrum critee dignius. Hor.—Dignor, also, both as the passive of the obsolete digno, and as a deponent verb, is followed by an ablative of the thing. As a deponent it takes also an accusative of the person; as, Haud equiden tail me honore dignor. Virg.—Pass. Qui tail hönöre dignatisman. Cic. Conjugio, Anchia, Vénèris dignate superbo. Virg.—Sometimes as a deponent, instead of the ablative of the thing, it is followed by an infinitive clause; as, Non ego grammaticas ambire tribus et pulpita dignor. Hor. And both dignor and delignor are followed by two accusatives, one of the object the other of the predicate. See § 230, R. 2.

REM. 2. (a.) Digmas and indigmas are sometimes followed by the genitive, as, Suscipe cognitationem digmissimam two virtuits. Cic. Indigmas avorum. Virg.; and digmas sometimes takes a neuter pronoun or adjective in the accusative; as, Non me censes scire quid digmas siem? Plaut. Frêtus is in Livy construed with the dative. Cf. § 222, R. 6, (b.)

(b.) Instead of an ablative, dignus and indignus often take an infinitive, especially in the passive; as, Erat dignus âmār. Virg.; or a subjunctive clause, with qui or ut; as, Dignus qui impēret. Cic. Non sum dignus, ut figam pālum in pārietem. Plaut.; or the supine in u; as, Dignu atque indignus rēlātu vēctfērans. Virg. Contentus is likewise joined with the infinitive; as, Non hoc artes contenta pāternus ēdidicisse fuit. Ovid.—So, Nāves pontum irrumpēre frēta. Stat.

§ 245. I. Utor, fruor, fungor, pŏtior, vescor, and their compounds, are followed by the ablative; as,

Ad quem tum Jāno supplex his vēcībus āsa est,—addressed these words. Virg. Fru vēluptāte, To enjoy pleasure. Cic. Fungitur officio, He performs his duty. Id. Oppido pētāt sunt. Līv. Vescītur aurā. Virg. His rebus perfruor. Cic. Lēgībus abut. Id. Dēfnacti impērio. Līv. Grāvi opēre perfungimur. Cic. O tandem naguis pētāja dēfunte pērētils. Virg.

The compounds are abūtor, deūtor, perfruor, dēfungor, and perfungor.

NOTE. Utor may take a second ablative, as an apposition or a predicate, like the predicate accusative, (§ 230, R. 2), and may then be translated by the verb to have; as, Ille făcili nie ütêtur patre, He shall have in me an indulgent father. Ter.

REMARK. In early writers these verbs sometimes take an accusative; as, Quam rem médici átuntar. Varr. Ingénium frui. Ter Datimes militäre mūnus fungens. Nep. Gentem áliquam urbem nostram pótuturam pútem, Cic. Sacras lauros vescur. Tibull. In prólógis seribendis operam ábatítur. Ter.—Péticr is, also, found with the genitive. See § 220, 4.

II. 1. Nitor, innitor, fido and confido, may be followed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Hastā innizus. Liv. Fidêre cursu. Ovid. Nātūrā bci confidêbant. Cæs.

Misceo with its compounds takes, with the accusative of the object, the
ablative of the thing mingled with; as, Miscere pābūla sāle. Coll. Aquas nectāre. Ovid. Aer multo cālore admiztus. Cic.

 Assuesco, assuefácio, consuesco, insuesco, and sometimes acquiesco, take either the dutive or the ablative of the thing; as, Aees samenue et præda assuetae. Hor. Nullo officio aut disciplina assuefactus. Cæs. Cf. § 224. Vīvo and epālor, 'to live or feast upon,' are followed by the ablative; as Dapībus epālāmur opāmis. Virg. Lacte atque pecore vivunt. Cæs.

5. Sto signifying 'to be filled or covered with,' and also when signifying 'to cost,' is followed by the ablative without a preposition; when signifying 'to persevere in, stick to, ablative by the rest or be fixed on,' it is followed by the ablative either with or without in; as, Jam pulvere calum stare vident. Virg.—Multo sanguine ac vulneribus ea Penis victoria stetit. Liv. Stare conditionlins. Cic. Omnis in Ascanio stat cara parentis. Virg.—Consto, 'to consist of' or 'to rest upon,' is followed by the ablative either alone or with ex, de, or in; as Constant matteries solido corpore. Lucr. Homo ex animo constant et corpore. Cic.

REMARK 1. Fido, confido, misceo, admisceo, permisceo, and assuesco often take the dative.

REM. 2. When a preposition is expressed after the above verbs, sto, fido, confido, nitor, innitor, and assuesco take in or ad; acquiesco, in; and misceo with its compounds, cum.

§ 246. Perfect participles denoting origin are often followed by the ablative of the source, without a preposition.

Such are nātus, prognātus, sātus, creātus, crētus, ēdītus, genītus, genērātus, ortus; to which maj be added oriundus, descended from.

Thus, Nāte deā ! O son of a goddess! Virg. Tantālo prōgnātus, Descended from Tantalns. Cic. Sātus Nēreide, Sprung from a Nereid. Ovid. Creatus rēge. Id. Alcānore crēti. Virg. Ethte rēgibus. Hor. Diis génite. Virg. Argōlico gentrātus Alēmone. Ovid. Ortus nullis mājorībus. Hor. Czelesti semine brinnil. Lucr.

REMARK 1. The preposition is also rarely omitted after the verbs creo, genero, and nascor; as, Ut patre certo nascerere. Cic. Fortes creantur fortibus. Hor.

Rem. 2. After participles denoting origin, the preposition ex or de is usually joined to the name of the mother; and in a few passages ex or ab is joined to the name of the father; as, Prōgnāti ab Dite patre. Cæs. In speaking of one's ancestors ab is frequently used; as, Plērosque Belgas esse ortos a Germānis. Id.

Rem. 3. Origin from a place or country is generally expressed by a patrial adjective; as, Thrisjbūlas Athēniensis, Thrasybūlus of Athens. Livy often uses ab; as, Turnus Herdonius ab Ariciā. Cæsar prefers the ablative alone; as, On. Magius Cremonā; and in this manner is expressed the tribe to which a person belongs; as, Q. Verres Romlitā,—of the Romlitan tribe.

ABLATIVE OF CAUSE, ETC.

§ 247. Nouns denoting the cause, manner, means, and instrument, after adjectives and verbs, are put in the ablative without a preposition.

Note. The English propositions with the ablative of cause, manner, means and instrument are by, with, in, etc.

1. The cause. (1.) Adjectives which have a passive signification, as denoting a state or condition produced by some externacause, may take such cause in the ablative; as,

Campāni fuërunt sāperbi bönitāte agrörum. Cie. Animal pābūlo letum. Sen Preelio fessi lassique, Weary and faint with the battle. Sall. Hömines agr grāvi morbo. Cie.

(2.) Neuter verbs expressing an action, state or feeling of the subject originating in some external cause, may take that cause in the a lative; as, Intérit făme, He perished with hu ger. Laude ălienă délet. Cic. Letonă dignităte. Id. Gawle tuo bono. Id. Suă victoriă glôriări. Coss. Aquilionibus libbrant querceta. Hor.—So with bêne est and the dative; as, Mihi bêne êret non piscibus urbe pêtitis, sed pullo atque hado. Hor. Ubi illi bêne sit ligno, ăquă călidă, cibo, vestimentis, etc. Plaut.

NOTE 1. After such adjectives and neuter verbs, a preposition with its case often supplies the place of the simple ablative.

Nore 2. In exclamations of encouragement or approbation, the defective adjective mate, mati, either with or without the imperative of esse (esto, cste, estole,) is joined with an ablative of cause, especially with rivide.

Note 3. After nenter verbs and adjectives denoting emotions, especially those of care, grief, and sorrow, the accusative vicem, with a genitive or a possessive pronoun, is used, instead of the ablative vice, to signify 'for' or 'on account of'; as, Rémittimus hoc tibi, ne nostram vicem irascaris, That you may not be angry on our account. Liv. Tuam vicem sepe dôleo, quod, etc. Cic. Suam vicem mágis anxius, quam ejus, cui auxilium ab se pétibatur. Liv.

REMARK 1. When the cause is a voluntary agent, it is put in the accusative with the preposition ob, propter, or per; as, Non est equum me propter vos dècipi. Ter. These prepositions, and a, or ab, de, e or ex, and præ, are also sometimes used when the cause is not a voluntary agent; as, Ob ādultērium casī. Virg. Noc lóqui præ merôre pôtuit. Čic.

REM. 2. (a.) After active verbs, the cause, unless expressed by an ablative in a from substantives having no other case; as, Jussa, rógiña and admônita, is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by a preposition, or by causă, gratiă, ergo, etc., with a genitive; as, Légibus propter metum pâred. Cic. Ne ob eam ren jusso déspéret. Id. Donāri virtitis ergo, Id. 81 hoc hônôris mei causă suscēpēris. Id. But with causă, etc., the adjective pronoun is commonly used for the corresponding substantive pronoun; as, Te ābesse mei causă, môleste fêro. Cic. Cf. § 211, R. 3, (6.)

(6.) When the cause is a state of feeling, a circumlocution is often used with a perfect participle of some verb signifying 'to induce'; as, Capiditate ductus, incitatus, incensus, inflammatus, implusus, motus, captus, etc. Miki benevolentia ductus tribuchat omnia. Cic. Livy frequently uses ab in this sense;

as, Ab irā, a spe, ab odio, from anger, hope, hatred.

2. The manner. Cum is regularly joined with the ablative of manner, when expressed simply by a noun, not modified by any other word; and also when an adjective is joined with the noun, provided an additional circumstance, and not merely an essential character of the action, is to be expressed. Thus:

Cum võluptāte aliquem audire. Verres Lampsacum vēnit cum magnā călāmītāte civitātis. Cic. Hence also when the connection between the subject and the noun denoting the attribute is only external; as, Procedere cum veste purpureā: in distinction from Nūdis pēdibus incēdire; Aperto cāpīte sēdere, etc.

which express circumstances or attributes essential to the subject.

But modus, ratio, mos, ritus, etc., signifying manner, never take cum, and it is omitted in some expressions with other substantives; as, lice mode scrips; Constituérunt qu'à ratione dgérêtur; More bestiarum vigari; Latvêmum ritu vicére; Equa animo fére; Maxima fule anicitius céluit. Summa equitate res constituit; Viam incrédibili céléritate confécit; Librum magna cura diligentiaque scripsit; the action of the verb being intimately connected with the circumstance expressed by the ablative. So in some expressions with substantive alone; as, Silentio pratèrire or facère âlquid Llege agère; Jüre and injuria facère; Magistrâtus vitio creatus; Recte et ordine fit.

REM. 3. The manner is also sometimes denoted by de or ex with the ablative as, De or ex industria, On purpose. Liv. Ex integro, Anew. Quit t.

 The means and instrument. An ablative is joined with verbs of every kind, and also with adjectives of a passive signification, to express the means or instrument; as,

Amicos observantia, rem parsimônia retanuid, He retained his friends by attention, his property by frugality. Cic. Auro ostrôque décôri. Virg. Ægresci medando. Id. Cornibus tauri, opri dentibus, morsu leônes se tutantur. Cic. Casus est virgis. Id. Trabs suacia securi. Ovid. For the ablative of the means after verbs of filling, etc., see § 249, I.

REM. 4. When the means is a person, it is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by per, or by the ablative operā with a genitive or a possessive pronoun; as, meā, tuā, suā, ōpērā, which are equivalent to per me, per te, per se, and denote both good and bad services. Benéficio meo, etc., is used of good results only; as, Benéficio meo patres sumt. Sall. But persons are sometimes considered as involuntary agents, and as such expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Servos, quibus sidves public sédipolidate servic. Cic.—When per is used to express the means, it is connected with external concurring circumstances, rather than with the real means or instrument. Hence we always say vi oppidam cipit, but per vim ei bōna ciripuit.

REM. 5. The material instrument is always expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Conficere cervum signitis; glādio āliquem vulnērāre; trājicere pectus ferro.

- § **248.** The ablative is used with passive verbs to denote the *means* or *agent* by which any thing is effected, and which in the active voice is expressed by the nominative. This ablative is used either with *ab* or without it, according as it is a person or a thing.
- I. The voluntary agent of a verb in the passive voice is put in the ablative with a or ab; as,

(In the active voice,) Clòdius me diltgit, Clodius loves me (Cic.); (in the passive,) A Clòdio diligor, I am loved by Clodius. Lauditur ab his, culpătur ab illis. Hor.

Remark 1. (1.) The general word for persons, after verbs in the passive voice, is often understood; as, Pribitas lawlātur, scil. ab hōmānbus. Juv. So after the passive of neuter verbs; as, Discurritur. Virg. Tōto certātum est corpore regni. Id. Cf. § 141, R. 2.

(2.) The agent is likewise often understood, when it is the same as the subject of the verb, and the expression is then equivalent to the active voice with a reflexive pronoun, or to the middle voice in Greek; as, Quum omnes in omni génère scélérum volatentur, scil. a se. Cic.

Rem. 2. Neuter verbs, also, are sometimes followed by an ablative of the voluntary agent with a or ab; as,

M. Marcellus pěrůt ab Annibăle, M. Marcellus was killed by Hannibal. Plin. Ne vir ab hoste cădat. Ovid.

Rem. 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Nec conjuge captus Ovid. Colitur linigérā turbā. Id. Péreat meis excisus Argīvis. Hor.

For the dative of the agent after verbs in the passive voice, and participles in dus, see § 225, II. and III.

II. The involuntary agent of a verb in the passive voice, or of a neuter verb, is put in the ablative without a preposition, as the cause, means, or instrument; as, Maximo dölöre conficior. Cic. Franqi cüpiditäte. Id. Æäcidæ tēlo jācet Bector. Virg.

Note. The involuntary agent is sometimes personified, and takes a or ab; as, A völuptatibus dēsēri. Cic. A nātūri dūtum homini vivendi curriculum. Id. Finci a võluptate. Id. Fictus a läbore. Id.

§ 249. I. A noun denoting the means, by which the action of a verb is performed, is put in the ablative after verbs signifying to affect in any way, to fill, furnish, load, array, equip, endow, adorn, reward, enrich, and many others.

REMARK 1. This rule includes such verbs as aff sio, aspergo, conspergo, inspergo, the spergo, compleo, expleo, impleo, oppleo, repleo, suppleo, camillo, farcio, refercio, satio executio, satio, statio, ostipo, constipo, obrato, obreto, angeo, induo, excito, armo, orno, cretenido, circumfundo, macto, locupleto, instruo, imbuo, dono, impertio, remanêror, honesto, kônoro, etc.; as,

Terrôre implitur Africa, Africa is filled with terror. Sil. Instrucêre epulis mensus, They furnished the tables with food. Ovid. It êjus âminum his ôptin-finibus imbuas, That you should imbue his mind with these sentiments. Gio. Năces ônêrud auro, They load the ships with gold. Virg. Cămâtat nităria donis He heaps the altars with gilts. Id. Terra se gramine cestă. The earth clothes itself with grass. Id. Mollibus ornâbat cornua sertis. Id. Multo cibo et pôtione completi. Cic. Libros pubrilibus fâbulis réfereire. Id. Stidri delectatione non possum. Id. Homines sătăriat hônoribus. Id. Seneclus stipata stâdiis jûren-titis Id. Me tanto hônôre hônestas. Plant. Equis African lôcuplitârd. Colum. Stădium tuum nullă me nôvă võluptâte affêcit. Cic. Terram nox obruit umbris. Lucr.

REM. 2. Several verbs denoting to fill, instead of the ablative, sometimes take a genitive. See § 220, 3.

REM. 3. The active verbs induo, dimo, impertio, aspergo, inspergo, circumdo, and circumfundo, instead of the ablative of the thing with the accusative of the person, sometimes take an accusative of the thing, and a dative of the person; as, Cui quum Didnira timicam indusset. Cic. Dindre miniera civibus. In the earliest writers dono, like condino, has sometimes two accusatives or an accusative of the person with the infinitive.

II. A noun denoting that in accordance with which any thing is, or is done, is often put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Nostro more, According to our custom. Gic. Instanto suo Cesur copias suas eduxit, According to his practice. Caes. Id factum consilio meo,—by my udvice. Ter. Pacem ficit his conditionibus,—on these conditions. Nep.

Note. The prepositions de, cx, pro, and secundum are often expressed with such nouns; as, Neque est facturus quidquam nisi de meo consifio. Cic. Exconsuatudine aliquid factre. Plin. Ep. Décet quidquid agas, agère pro viri.us. Cic. Sécundum naturam vivère. Id.

III. The ablative denoting accompaniment, is usually joined with cum; as,

Văgămur žyentes cum conjūgibus et libēris, Needy, we wander with om wives and children. Cic. Seepe admīrāri soleo cum hoc C. Lælio. Id. Jūlium cum his ad te litēris mīsi. Id. Ingressus est cum glādio. Id. Rōmum rēni cum febri. Cum occāsu solis copias rālicēre,—as soon as the sun set.

REMARK. But cum is sometimes omitted before words de oting military and naval forces, when limited by an adjective; as, Ad castra Lessivis omnibus copiis contenderunt. Ces. Inde tito exercitu profectus. Liv. Eidem diem näribus C. Furius vēnit. Liv. And sometimes in military language cum is omitted, when accompanying circumstances are mentioned, and not perscus; as Oustra clamfor invadunt.

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§ 250. 1. A noun, adjective, or verb, may be followed by the ablative, denoting in what respect their signification is taken; as.

Pittâte filus. consiliis părens, în affection a son, in counsel a parent. Cic. Règes nomine mágis quam império, Kings în name rather than în authority. Nep. (ppidum nomine Bibraz. Caes.—Jare péritus, Skilled în law. Cic. Ancioc âut. mo, Anxious în mind. Tac. Pédibus cager, Lame în his feet. Sall. Crine rûber, miger ôre. Mart. Fronte letus. Tac. Major nătu. Cic. Prădentă non niferior, usa vivo ctiam săpérior. Id. Mazimus nătu. Liv.—Anmo angi, To be troubled în miud. Cic. Contrêmisco tôtă mente et omnibus artibus, I am agitatel în my whole mind and în every limb. Id. Captus mente, Affected în mind, î. e. de prived of reason. Id. Attêro ôcâlo câptur. Liv. Ingénii laude floruit. Cic Polifer nobilităte. Tac. Animôque et corpôre torpet. Hor.

REMARK. This may be called the *ablative of limitation*, and denotes the relation expressed in English by 'in respect of,' 'in regard to,' 'as to,' or 'in.'—Respecting the genitive of limitation after adjectives, see § 213;—after verbs, § 220, 1: and respecting the accusative of limitation, see § 231, R. 5; § 232, (3.); and § 234, II.

2. (1.) Adjectives of plenty or want are sometimes limited by the ablative; as,

Downs plina servis, A house full of servants. Juv. Dives agris, Rich in land: Hor. Féraz sacalum bónis artibus. Plin.—Inops verbis, Deficient in words. Cic. Orba frátribus, Destitute of brothers. Ovid. Viduum arbóribus sólum. Colum. Nadus agris. Hor. For the genitive after adjectives of plenty and want, see § 213, R. 3-5.

(2.) Verbs signifying to abound, and to be destitute, are followed by the ablative; as,

Scatentem belluis pontum, The sea abounding in monsters. Hor. Urbs rédundat militibus, The city is full of soldiers. Anct. ad Hor. Villa abundat porce, hado, agno, gallinā, lacte, cāseo, melle. Cic.— "trum qui pēcāmā ēgeat, A man who is in want of money. Id. Cārēre culpā, To be free from fault. Id. Mea āddlescentia indiget illörum börā existimātione. Id. Abundat andāciā, consilio et rătione deficitur. Id.

REMARK 1. To this rule belong åbundo, exübero, rédundo, scáteo, affluo, circumíluo, diffluo, siperfluo, suppédito, váleo, vigeo;—cáreo, égeo, indigeo, váco, deficior, destituor, etc.

REM. 2. The genitive, instead of the ablative, sometimes follows certain vel. signifying to abound or to want. See § 220, 3.

REM. 3. To do any thing with a person or thing, is expressed in Latin by ficire with der, as, Quid de Tullibid med fielf. Gie; and more frequently by the simple ablative, or the dative; as, Quid hoc hömine or huic hömine faciatis! What can you do with this man? Gie. Nescit quid faciat auro,—what he shall do with the gold. Plaut. Quid me fint parvi pendis, You care little what becomes of me. Ter.—Sum is occasionally used in the same manner; as, Métum répérint quidnam se făiram esset,—what would become of them. Liv.

§ 251. A noun denoting that of which any thing is deprived, or from which it is freed, removed, or separated, is often put in the ablative without a preposition.

This construction occurs after verbs signifying to deprive, free, depar, drive away, remove, depart, and others which imply set aration.

Note. The principal verbs of this class are arceo, pello, dépello, expello, abdico, interdico, défendo, déturbo, déjicio, éjicio, absterreo, diterreo, mivoco, ámoreo,
démoveo, rémoveo, sécerno, prohibeo, séparo, excludo, intercludo, ábeo, exce, cio,
décido, discèdo, dissido, érâdo, abstineo, spólio, privo, orbo, libéro, expédio, lazo,
mido, solvo, exsolvo, exônero, lévo, purgo, to which may be added the adjectives liber, immunis, pirus, vácuus, and dilénus; as,

Nădantur arbores foliis, The trees are stripped of leaves. Plin. Hoc me libèra metu, Free me from this fear. Ter. Time cam philosophicm sepaire, que spôliat nos jidulcio, privat approbatione, orbat sensthus? Cic. Soloii se Teucria Inctu. Virg. Te illis sedibus arcebit. Cic. Q. Varium pellere possessionibus condus est. Id. Onnes tribu rêmôtî. Liv. Lêvire se sere alieno. Cic. Me leves chôri scerunat pôpulo. Hor. Animus omni liber cura et angore. Cic. Urumque homine dilenissimum. Id. When dilenus signifies 'averse' or 'hostile to,' it takes the ablative with ab, or rarely the dative; as, Id dicit, quod illi causæ mazime set dilenum. Id. In the sense of 'unsuited,' it may also be joined with the genitive; as, Quis dilenum pâtet ejus esse dignitătis? Id.—Alius too, in analogy with adjectives and verbs of separation, sometimes takes an ablative; as, Nêve pâtes dium săpiente bōnoque bedatum. Hor.; but this may also be referred to the ablative after comparatives. Ci. § 256, R. 14.

REMARK I. Most verbs of depriving and separating are more or less frequently followed by ah, de, or ex, with the ablative of the thing, and always by ab with the ablative of the person; as, Tu Jūpiter, hunc a tuis āris arcēbis. Cic. Prossidiam ex arce pēpidērumt. Nep. Aquum de agro peldēre. Plin. Ex ingrātā etvitāte cēdēre. Cic. Arcem ab incendio bbērāvit. Id. Solvēre bellume ex cātēnis. Auct. ad Her.—Sēdes rēmōtas a Germānis. Cæs. Se ab Etruscis sēcernēre. Liv.

Rem. 2. Arceo, in the poets, sometimes takes the dative, see § 224, R. 2., and sometimes an infinitive; as, Plagamque sedere cedendo arcebat. Ovid .-Probibeo and defendo take either the accusative of the person or thing to be defended, with the ablative of the thing to be warded off-or the reverseăliquem or ăliquid a périculo, or périculum ab ăliquo. They are also sometimes construed with the dative, see § 224, R. 2, and sometimes with infinitive or subjunctive clauses. Prohibeo has rarely two accusatives; as, Id te Jupiter prohibessit. Plant.; or poetically the accusative and genitive; as, Capta prohibrine Paulos iquille. Sil.—Interdice takes the person either in the accusative or the dative, and the thing in the ablative, disparen or affect aliqua re; as, Quibus quam aqua et igni interdessent. Css.—Instead of the ablative, a subjunctive clause with ne, and more rarely with ut, sometimes follows interdico.—Absum, in like manner, takes the ablative with ab, and sometimes the dative; as, Curtae nescio quid semper abest rei. Hor. Cf. § 224, R. 1.—Abdico takes sometimes an ablative, and sometimes an accusative of the thing renounced; as, Abdicare se magistratu. Cic. Abdicare magistratum. Sall. In Plautus, circumdūco, to cheat, takes the ablative of the thing. Interclūdo, instead of an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person; as, Itinerum angustia multitudini fugam intercluserant. Cas .: and, instead of the ablative of the thirg, a subjunctive clause with quominus occurs: Intercluder dolore, quominus ad te plūra scrībam. Cic.

Rem. 3. Verbs which signify to distinguish, to differ, and to disagree, are generally construed with ab, but sometimes, especially in the poets, with the ablative alone.

Note. Verbs signifying to distinguish, etc., are distinguo, discerno, secerno, différo, discrépo, dissideo, disto, dissentio, discordo, déhorreo, dilino, and diditiono.—
Dissentio, dissideo, discrépo, and discordo are construed also with cum.—The verbs which signify to differ are sometimes construed with the dative; as, Distat infido scurree amicus. Hor., and in like manner the adjective diversus, as, Nibil est tam Lysiz diversum, quam Isocrates. Quint.

ABLATIVE OF PRICE.

§ 252. The price or value of a thing is put in the ablative, when it is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantive; as,

Quum te trēcentis tālentis rēģi Cotto vendīdisses, When you had sold yoursolf to king Cottus for three hundred talents. Cic. Vendīdit hie auro patriam, This one sold his country for gold. Virg. Cibus imo asse vēndīts. Plin. Constiti quāžringentis millibus. Varr. Dēnis in diem assibus intimum et corpus (militum) asstmāri. Tac. Lēvi momento astmāre. Cass. Istuc verbum vile est viginti mīnis. Plaut. Asse cārum est. Sen. Ep.

REMARK 1. The verbs which take an ablative of price or value are (1) estimo, davo, facio, fio, hibeo, peado, puido, dipido, turco (2) èvo, mercor, cendo, vineo, sto, consto, prosto, condico, tôco, vileo, luo, and liceo.—To these must be added others, which express some act or enjoyment for which a certain price is paid; as, Lavor quidrante. Triginta millibus Gelius habitat. Cic. Viz drachmis est obsaidus decem. Ter. Doce talento, etc. So esse in the sense 'to be worth'; as, Sextante sad in Italia èrat.

REM. 2. Respecting the genitive of price or value, when expressed in a general or indefinite manner, see § 214.

REM. 3. The price of a thing, contrary to the general rule, is often expressed indefinitely by a neutre adjective; as, magno, permagno, pervo, tantālo, plūre, minimo, plūrimo, vilā, villioris, vilissimo, minio, etc., as, Plūre evnil. Cic. Conducti won magno domum. Id. These adjectives refer to some noun understood, as prêtio, eve, and the like, which are sometimes expressed; as, Parveo prêtio ea renddisse. Cic.—The adverbs bêne, pulchre, recte, mâle, câre, etc., sometimes take the place of the genitive or ablative of price; as, Bêne cimère; recte vendere; optime vendere, etc.

Rem. 4. Varro has used văleo with the accusative; as, Dēnārii dicti, quod dēnos aris vălēbant.

Rem. 5. Mato and its compounds, commuto and permuto, are commonly construed like verbs of selling, the thing parted with being put in the accusative, and the thing received in exchange for it, in the ablative; as, Chāōniam glandem pinqui mūtīvit āristā. Virg. But these cases are often reversed, so that the thing received is put in the accusative and the thing given for it in the ablative; as, Cur valle permutem Sābīnā divitias ōpērōsiores? Why should I exchange my Sabīne valley for more wearisome riches? Hor.—Sometimes in this construction cum is joined with the ablative.

ABLATIVE OF TIME.

§ 253. A noun denoting the *time at* or *within* which any thing is said to be, or to be done, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Die quinto décessit, He died on the fifth day. Nep. Hoc tempõie, At this time. Cic. Tertià vigilià ëruptionem fécérunt, They made a sally at the third watch. Cas. Ut hième naviges, That you should sail in the winter. Cic. Proximo triennio omnes gentes subrijit. Nep. Agamennon cum universa Graccia viza décem annis niama cripit urbem. Nep.

Note 1. The English expression 'by day' is rendered in Latin either by interdia or die; 'by night,' by nocta or nocte; and 'in the evening,' by respêrs or respêri; see § 82, Exc. 5, (a.) Ledis is used for in tempore laddrum; and Săturnāthus, Lutinis, gladiatoribus, for ladis Săturnāthus, etc. Other nouns not properly expressing time are used in that sense in the ablative either with or without in, as initio, principio, adventu and discress altefaju, comitis, 'ametlu, ello, pâce, etc.; or in initio, etc. But bello is more common without in, if it is

joined with an adjective or a genitive; as, Bello Pāntco sēcumb, bello Lātinō rum; and so, also, pugnā Cumensi. So we say in puēritiā, but nini in with an adjective; as, extrānā puēritiā. In is very rarely used with neuns expressing a certain space of time; as, annus, dies, hôra, etc., for the purpose of lenoting the time of an event. In tempôre signifies either 'in distress,' or 'in time,' i. e. 'at the right time'; but in both cases tempôre alone is used, and tempôre in the sense of 'early' has even become an adverb, an earlier form of which was tempôri or tempêri, whose comparative is tempêrius.

REMARK 1. When a period is marked by its distance before or after another fixed time, it may be expressed by ante or post with either the accusative or the ablative.—(a) The preposition is regularly placed before the accusative, but after the ablative. If an adjective is used, the preposition is often placed between the adjective and the noun. In this connection the ordinal as well as the cardinal numbers may be used. Hence the English phrase 'after three years,' or 'three years after,' may be expressed in these eight ways; post tres annos, tribus annis post; post tertium annum, tertio anno post; tres post annos, tribus post annis; tertium post annum, tertio post anno.

(b.) When ante or post stands last, an accusative may be added to denote the time before or after which any thing took place; as, Multis annis post decemviros. Cic. So Consul factus est annis post Romam conditam trecentis duo-

dēnonā ginta.

Note 2. Post and ante sometimes precede the ablatives, as ante annis octo; post paucis dicbus; and also before such ablatives as are used adverbially, as post áliquanto; ante paulo.

Note 3. Quam and a verb are sometimes added to post and ante in all the forms above specified; e. g. tribus annis postquam vēnērat; post tres annos quam vēnērat; tertio anno postquam vēnērat; post annum tertium quam vēnērat, etc.; all of which expressions signify 'three years after he had come.' Sometimes post is omitted; as, tertio anno quam venerat.

Note 4. Instead of postquam, 'after,' we may use ex quo, quum, or a relative agreeing with the preceding ablative; as, Ipse octo diebus, quibus has literas dabām, cum Lipidi copius me conjungum; i. e. in eight days after the date of this letter. Plane. in Cie. Fam. Mors Sez. Roscii quatriduo, quo is occisse set, Chrystoffon vandidur,—cour days after he had been killed. Cie. Quen triduo, quum has dabam literas, exspectabam,—three days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. In such cases in is sometimes joined with the ablative; as, In diebus paucis, quibus hac acta sunt, moritur. Ter.

Rem. 2. The length of time before the present moment may be expressed by abhine with the accusative, and, less frequently, the ablative; as, Questor fuisti abhine annos quatuordecim. Cic. Contains jum abhine triginta diebus habitis. Id. The same is also expressed by ante with the pronoun hic; as, ante hos sex menses malédicistis min,—six months ago. Phed. Ante is sometimes used instead of abhine: and the length of time before is sometimes expressed by the ablative joined with hic or ille; as, Paucis his diebus, or paucis illis diebus,a few days ago.

Rem. 3. The time at which anything is done, is sometimes expressed by the reuter accusative id, with a genitive; as. Venit id temporis. Cic. So with a preposition; Ad id diei. Gell. See § 212, R. 3.

Rem. 4. (a.) The time at or within which any thing is done, is sometimes, with personal subjects, expressed by de, with the ablative; as, De tertia vigilia ad hostes contendit,-in the third watch. Cass. Ut jugulent homines surgunt de nocte latrones. Hor. So, also, with sub; as, Ne sub ipsa profectione milites oppidum irrampérent,-at the very time of his departure. Cas. Sub adrentu Romanbrum, While the Romans were arriving. Id.

(b.) The tune within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by intra with the accusative; as, Dimidiam partem nationum subrigit intra viginti dies. Plant Intra decimum diem, quam Pheras venerat In less than ten days after. Liv

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REM. 5. The time within which a thing happens, is often expressed by the ablative with in; especially (a) in connection with numerals; as, Bis in die sătărum fieri; vix ter in anno nuntium audire; and (b), as in the use of intra, to denote that the event happened before the time specified had fully expired.

Rem. 6. Instead of in pueritia addlescentia, juventute, senectute, etc., in stating the age at which a person performed any action, the concretes puer, adolescens, jūvėnis, sėnex, etc., are commonly joined to the verb; as, Ch. Pompeius, adolescens se et patrem consilio servārit.—So, also, adjectives ending in ēnārius are sometimes used in stating the number of years a person has lived; as, Cicero sexagenarius.

For the ablative denoting duration of time, see § 236.

ABLATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 254. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the third declension or plural number, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Alexander Băbylone est mortuus, Alexander died at Babylon. Cic. Intererit multum—Thēbis nutritus an Argis,—whether brought up at Thebes or at Argos. Hor. Nātus Tībūre vel Găbiis. Id.

REMARK 1. 'In the country' is expressed by rure, or more commonly by rūri, without a preposition; as, Pater filium rūri hābitare jussit. Cic. With an adjective only rure is used; as, Interdum nugaris rure păterno. Hor. Cf. § 221, N.

Rem. 2. (a.) The preposition in is sometimes expressed with names of

towns; as, În Philippis quidam nunciavit. Suet.

(b.) Names of towns of the first and second declension, and singular number, and also domus and humus, are in like manner sometimes put in the ablative without in. See § 221, R. 2 and R. 3 .- So, also, terra maraque, by land and by sea. In is also frequently omitted with loco and locis, especially when joined with an adjective and having the meaning of 'occasion'; as, Hoc loco, multis locis, etc.—Libro joined with an adjective, as hoc, primo, etc., is used without in when the whole book is meant, and with in when only a portion is referred to. An ablative of place joined with tôto, tôtā, tôtis, is generally used without in; as, Urbe totā gemītus fit. Cic. Totā Asiā vagātur. Id. Toto mari. Id. But in such cases in is sometimes used. So cunctā Asiā. Liv.

- REM. 3. Before the names of countries, of nations used for those of countries, and of all other places in which any thing is said to be or to be done, except those of towns, and excepting also the phrases specified in the first and second remarks, the preposition in is commonly used; as, Iphicrates in Thracia vixit, Chares in Sigeo. Nep. Rure ego viventem, tu dicis in urbe beatum. Hor. Aio hoc fièri in Græcia. Plant. In Bactrianis Sogdianisque urbes condidit. Lucus in urbe fuit. Virg. But it is sometimes omitted by writers of every class and period; as, Milites stativis castris habebat. Sall. Magnis in laudibus fuit tota Gracia. Nep. Populi sensus maxime theatro et spectaculis perspectus est. Cic. Pompeius se oppido tenet. Id. In the poets and later prose writers this omission is of very frequent occurrence not only with names of towns but with son is of very inequent occurrence of only with manies of works but with ablatives of all nouns answering to the question, where? as, Naërla puppe sédens. Ovid. Ibem forte Via Sacrā. Hor. Silvisque agrisque viisçae corpóra fueda jácent. Ovid. Médio alveo concursum est. Liv.—Fóris, ont at the door, abroad, is properly an ablative of place; as, Fóris canat. Cic. Cf. § 237, R. 5, (c.)
- § 255. 1. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of a town whence the motion proceeds, is p.rt in the ablative, without a preposition; as,

Brundlsio prôfecti sūmus, We departed from Brundisium. Cic. Dionysius threamus Syrācūsis expulsus Corintla puiros docibat. Id. Dimáritus Traquinius Corintla figit. Id. Accip turus titirva bitas Placentia. Id. Interim Romā pes litiras certior fit; sell. datas or missas. Sall. J. 82. So, also, after a verbal nonu; as, Narbon režitus. Cic.

REMARK 1. The ablatives domo, humo, and rure or ruri, are used, like names of towns, to denote the place whence motion proceeds as.

Domo profectus, Having set out from home. Nep. Surgit himo graving. The youth rises from the ground. Ovid. Rure huc adenit. Ter. Si rui gravet. Id. Virgil uses domo with unde; as, Qui genus? unde denit? and Livy instead of domo abesse, has esse ab domo. With an adjective, rure, and not ruri, must be used.

Rem. 2. With names of towns and domus and hamus, when answering the question whence? ab, ex, or de, is sometimes used; as, Ab Alexandria profectus. Cic. Ex domo, Id. De vitif fra revises Vienna. Mart. Ab hamo. Virg.

Rem. 3. (a.) With other names of places whence motion proceeds, ab, ex, or de, is commonly expressed; as, Me a portu premisit. Plaut. Ex Asia transis in Europam. Curt. Ex castris proficiscantur. Cass. De Pounțtino, scil. pradio. Cic.—So, also, before names of nations used for those of countries; as, Ex Médis ad adversáribrum hibernácila percént. Nep.

- (b.) But the preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Litérie Macédônia allâte. Liv. Classis Cypro advēnit. Curt. Cessissent lõco. Liv. Ni cite vicis et castellis proximis subrentum foret. Id. Ite sacris, propérate sacris, laurumque capillis pônile. Ovid. Finibus omnes présiluère suis. Virg. Advelvant ingentes montibus ornos. Id. This omission of the preposition is most common in the poets and later prose writers.
- The place by, through, or over which, after verbs of motion, commonly follows per; but frequently also it is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Per Thēbas iter fécit. Nep. Exercitum vădo transdicit. Cres. His pontibus păbilătum mittebat. Id. Tribăni militum portă Collină urbem intrăvēre sub signis, medităque urbe agmine in Aventiumu pergunt. Liv. Legiones Penninis Cottiânisque Alpibus, pars monte Graio, trădăcuntur. Tac. Equites viă breviore premist. Cic.

ABLATIVE AFTER COMPARATIVES.

- § 256. 1. When two objects are compared by means of the comparative deee, a conjunction, as quam, alque, etc., is sometimes expressed, and some times omitted.
- The comparative degree, when quam is omitted, is followed by the ablative of that with which the comparison is made; as,

Nihil est virtute formosius, Nothing is more beautiful than virtue. Cic. Quis C. Lælio comion? Who is more courteous than C. Lælius? Id.

REMARK 1. The person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, is usually put in the ablative; as,

Stilere pulchrior ille est, tu lévior cortice. Hor. Vilius argentum est auro, virnitibus aurum. Id. Tullus Hostilus Frécier Romitlo fuit. Liv. Lacrima nihi vitius arcseit. Cic. Quid magis est durum saxo, quid mollius unda? Ovid. Hoo n'uno fuit minus ineptus. Ter. Albanum, Maccours, sire Falernum te magis appositis delectat. Hor.

REM. 2. An object with which a person or thing addressed is compared, is also put in the ablative; as, O fons Bandusia splendidior vitro! Hor.

Rem. 3. Sometimes the person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, instead of following it in the ablative, is connected with it by quam, and it is then put in the same case as the subject, whether in the nominative or the accusative; as, Oratio quam habitus fuit miserabilior. Cic. Affirmo nullam esse budden ampliorem quam eam. Id. So, also, when an ablative in the case absolute takes the place of the subject; as, Eodem (scil. duce) plūra, quam gregārio mīlīte, tölērante. Tac.

Rem. 4. If the person or thing which is compared with any object is neither the subject of the sentence nor the person addressed, quam is commonly used, and the object which follows it is then put in the nominative with sum, and sometimes in an oblique case to agree with the object with which it is compared; as, Měliorem, quam cgo sum, suppēno tibi. Plaut. Ego hominem callidiorem vidi neminem quam Phormionem. Ter. Adventus hostium fuit agris, quam urbi terribilior. Liv. Omnes fontes æstate, quam hieme, sunt gélidiores. Themistoclis nomen, quam Solonis, est illustrius. Cic.—The following example illustrates both the preceding constructions :- Ut tibi multo majori, quam Africanus fuit, me non multo minorem quam Lælium fácile et in republica et in àmicitia adjunctum esse pătiare. Cic.

Rem. 5. (a.) The person or thing with which the object of an active verb is compare I, though usually connected with it by quam, (R. 4,) is sometimes put in the ablative, especially in the poets, and frequently also even in prose, if the object is a pronoun, particularly a relative pronoun; as, Attilo, quo graviorem inimicum non habui, sororem dedit, He gave his sister to Attalus, than whom, etc. Curt. Hoc nihil gratius făcere potes. Cic. Causam enim suscepisti antiquiorem memoria Lud. Id. Esqu monumentum were presentus. Hor. Car olivam sun-gulue viperino cantius vitat I id. Quid prins dicum solltis părestis laudibus? Id. Mājora viribus audes. Virg. Nulam socră vite prius secris arborem. Hor. Nullos his mallem lūdos spectasse. Id. § 178, 3.

(b.) The ablative instead of quam is never used with any other oblique case except the accusative, but quam is sometimes found, even where the ablative might have been used; as, Mélior tatorque est certa par quam spérata citéria. Liv. After quam, if the verb cannot be supplied from the preceding sentence, est, fint, etc., must be added; as, Hee verba sunt M. Varrônis, quam fuit Claudius, doctioris. Gell. Drusum Germanicum minorem natu, quam ipse erat,

frätrem amisit. Sen.

Rem. 6. (a.) Minus, plus, and amplius with numerals, and with other words Jenoting a certain measure or a certain portion of a thing, are used either with or without quam, generally as indeclinable words, without influence upon the construction, but merely to modify the number; as, Non plus quam quatuor millia effugirunt, not effugit. Liv. Pictores antiqui non sunt usi plus quam quatuor coloribus, not pluribus. Cic.

(b.) Quam is frequently omitted with all cases; as, Minus duo millia homt-num ex tauto exercita effugirunt. Liv. Miltes Români sepe plus dimidiati men-sis cibăria ferbint. Cic. Quam plus canum egger fuisset. Liv. Sedecim non amplius vo anno légionibus defensam impérium est. Id.

(c.) These comparatives, as in the preceding example, are sometimes inserted between the numeral and its substantive, and sometimes, when joined with an egative, they follow both, as a sort of apposition; as, Quinque milita armatórum, non amplius, rélictum érat præsidium,—a garrison of twe thousand soldiers, non none. Liv. So, also, bagius; Cesar certior est factus, magnas Gallorum copias non longius millia passuum octo ab hibernis suis abfuisse. Cas. See § 236.

(d.) The ablative is sometimes used with these as with other comparatives; as, Dies triginta aut plus eo in navi fai. Ter. Triennio amplius. Cic. Hora amplius moliebantur. Id. Ne longius triduo ab castris absit. Cæs. Apud Suevos non longius anno remanere uno in loco incolenda causa licet. Id. Quum initio non

umplius du bus millibus habusset. Sall.

REM. 7. Quam is in like manner sometimes omitted, without a charge of case, after major, minor, and some other comparatives; as, Obsides ne minores octonum denum annorum neu majores quinum quadragenum,.... of not less than eighteen, nor more than forty-five years of age. Liv. Ex urbāno exercitu, qui minores quinque et trīginta annis érant, in nāves impositi sunt. The genitive and ablative, in these and similar examples, are to be referred to § 211, R. 6. Longius ab urbe mille passuum. Liv. Annos natas magis quadra vinta. Cic.

REM. 8. When the second member of a comparison is an infinitive or a clause, quem is always expressed; as, Nihil est in dicendo mājus quam ut faveat

ratori auditor. Cic.

Rem. 9. Certain nouns, participles, and adjectives,—as opinione, spe, exspectatione, fide,-dicto, sólito,-aquo, credibili, necessario, vero, and justo,-are used in a peculiar manner in the ablative after comparatives; as, Opinione célérius ventūrus esse dīcītur,—sooner than is expected. Cass. Dicto citius tūmīdu aquora plācat, Quicker than the word was spoken. Virg. Injūrias grāvius æquo habere. Sall.

(a.) These ablatives supply the place of a clause; thus, gravius æquo is equivalent to gravius quam quod aquum est. They are often omitted; as, T:2mistocles liberius vivebat, scil. equo. Nep. In such cases, the comparative may be translated by the positive degree, with too, quite, or rather, as in the above example—'He lived too freely,' or 'rather freely.' Voluptas quam major est atque longior, omne animi lumen exstinguit,-when it is too great, and of too long continuance. Cic. So tristior, scil. solito, rather sad.

(b.) The English word 'still,' joined with comparatives, is expressed by . ětiam or vel, and only in later prose writers by adhuc; as, Ut in corporibus mag-

me dissimilitudines sunt, sic in animis exsistant mājores etiam vārietātes. Cic.

Rem. 10. (a.) With inferior, the dative is sometimes used, instead of the ablative; as, Vir nulla arte cuiquam inférior. Sall. The ablative is also found; as, Ut hamanos casus virtute infériores pates. Cic. But usually inférior is followed by quam; as, Timotheus belli laude non inférior fuit, quam pater. Cic. Gratia non inférior, quam qui umquam fuerunt amplissimi. Id.

(b.) Qualis, such as, with a comparative, occurs poetically instead of the relative pronoun in the ablative; as, Nardo përunctum, quale non perfectius mea libborinin manus; instead of quo. Hor. Epod. 5, 59. Anime quales neque candidiores terra tulit; for quibus. Id. Sat. 1, 5, 41.

Rem. 11. Quam pro is used after comparatives, to express disproportion; as, Prælium atrocius quam pro numero pugnantium, The battle was more severe than was proportionate to the number of the combatants. Liv. Minor, quam pro tămultu, cædes. Tac.

Rem. 12. When two adjectives or adverbs are compared with each other, both are put in the comparative; as, Triumphus clarior quam gratior, A tri-umph more famous than acceptable. Liv. Fortius quam felicius bellum yesserunt. So, also, when the comparative is formed by means of magis; as, Magis audacter quam părate ad dicendum veniebat. Cic.—Tacitus uses the positive in me part of the proposition; as, Spēciem excelse gloriæ vēhēmentius quam caute appētēbat; or even in both; as, Clāris mājorībus quam vētustis.

Rem. 13. (a.) Potius and magis are sometimes joined pleonastically with malle and præstare, and also with comparatives; as, Ab omnibus se desertos potius quam abs te defensos esse malunt. Cic. Qui magis vere vincere quam diu impērāre mālit. Liv. Ut ēmori potius quam servīre præstāret. Cic. Mihi quævis fuga potins quam ulla provincia esset optatior. Id. Quis magis queat esse beattior? Virg.

(b.) So, also, the prepositions præ, ante, præter, and supra, are sometimes used with a comparative; as, Unus pree ceteris fortior exsuryit, Apul. Scellere ante allos immonior ownes. Virg. They also occur with a superlative, ante allos cerissimus. Nep. As these prepositions, when joined with the positive, denote comparison, they seem in such examples to be redundant. Rem. 14. Alius is sometimes in poetry treated as a comparative, and construed with the ablative instead of atque with the nominative or accusative; as, N ere prites alium sapiente bonoque beatum. Hor. Alius Ligsippo. Id. But compare § 251, N.

Rem. 15. By the poets ac and adque are sometimes used instead of quam after comparatives; as, Quanto constantior idem in vitis, tunto lévius inter ac prior ille, qui, etc. Hor. Arctius atque hédéra procèra adstringitur ilex. Id.

Rem. 16. The degree of difference between objects compared is expressed by the ablative:—

- (1) Of substantives; as Minor into mense, Younger by one month. Hor. Sesquipēde quam tu longior, Taller than you by a foot and a half. Plant Hiberula dimitlo minor quam Britannia. Cass. Dimidlo minor is considuit, it will cost less by half. Cic. Quam molestam est une digito plus habbre.....to have one finger more, i. e. than we have, to have six fingers. Id.—but the expression is ambiguous, as it might mean 'to have more than one finger.' Superat capite et cervicibus alis.' Virg.
- (2.) Of neuter adjectives of quantity and neuter pronouns, in the singular number. Such are two, quando, quo, eo, heo, multo, purco, prudo, nuivo, alternativo, tantilo, altero tanto (twice as much); as, Multo doctor es patre, Thou art (by) much incre learned than thy father. The relative and demonstrative words, quanto—tanto, quo—co, or quo—hoc, signifying 'by how much—by so much], are often to be translated by an emphatic the; as, Quanto somus aspirores, tanto nos suburissis piramus, The more entineut we are, the more humbly let us conduct ourselves: lit. by how much—by so much—. Cic. Eo gracion est dollor, quo culpa est mijor. Id. But the relative word generally precedes the demonstrative; as, Quo difficilius, hoc practicirus. Id. Poetically, also, quan majois—tum majois are used instead of quanto majois—tanto majois. Virg. Eu. 7, 787; and quan majois—tanto majois. Lucr. 6, 459.—Iter multo facilius, much easier. Caes. Parvo brēvius, A little shorter. Plin. Eo majoi, The more. Cic. Eo minus. Id. Istoc majois vipidiobis, So much the more. Plant. Via altero tanto longior,—as long again. Nep. Multo id maximum fuit. Liv.
- (3.) The ablative of degree is joined not only with comparatives but with verbs which contain the idea of comparison; as, malo, presto, sipero, excello, auticello, and also with autic and post, in the sense of 'earlier' and 'later'; as, Multo prestat. Sall. Post paulo, A little after. Id. Multis partibus is post properties and contains particular to multo; as, Numéro multis partibus esset inférior. Ces.

Note. The accusatives multum, tantum, quantum, and diquantum, are sometimes used instead of the corresponding ablatives; as, Aliquantum est ad rem dividior. Ter. Multum impribiores sunt. Plant. Quantum dono inférior, tantum glória supérior évasit. Val. Max. Cf. § 282, [8].—So longe, 'far,' is frequently used for multo; as, Longe mélior. Virg. Longe et multum antécellère. Cic. So, pars pédis sesqui májor,—longer by one halt. Id.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

§ 257. A noun and a participle are put in the ablative, called *absolute*, to denote the time, cause, means, or concomitant of an action, or the condition on which it depends; as,

Pýthágóras, Tarquínio regnante, in Itáliam vēnit, Pythagoras came intò Italy, in the reign of Tarquin. Cic. Lápus, stimúlante fame, captat ócile, Hunger in-citing, the wolf seeks the fold. Ovid. Milites, pecore e longinquioribus vicis ádacto, extrémam famem sustentiónant. Cas. Ilac örátióne hábitá, concliem fimisit. Id. Galli, re cognitá, obsidiónem rélinquant. Id. Virtüte excepta, minimicitia pravióbilus pútcitis. Cic.

Note 1. The Latin ablative absolute may be expressed in English by a similar construction, but it is commonly better to translate it by a clause connected by when, since, while, although, after, as, etc., or by a verbal substantive, as, Te adjuvante, With thy assistance. Non—nisi te adjuvante, Only with thy assistance, or not without thy assistance. Te non adjuvante, Without thy assistance. Cf. § 274, R. 5, (c.)

REMARK 1. This construction is an abridged form of expression, equivalent to a dependent clause connected by quum, si, etsi, quamquam, quamvis, etc.

Thus, for Tarquinio regnante, the expression dum Tarquinius regnabat might be used; for hac öratione habita;—quum hanc örationem habutaset, or quum hac öratio habita esset,—concilium dimisi. The ablative absolute may always be resolved into a proposition, by making the noun or pronoun the subject, and the participle the predictate.

Relm. 2. This construction is common only with present and perfect participles. Instances of its use with participles in rus and dus are comparatively rare; as,

Cæsåre ventūro, Phosphóre, redde diem. Mart. Irruptūris tam infestis nātibus. Liv. Quum concio plausum, meo nomine rēcitando, dēdisset,—when my name was pronounced. Cic. Quum immolandā phigēnāt rists Culchas esset. Id. Quis est ėnim, qui, nullis officii præceptis trādendis, philosophum se audeat dzeère—without propounding any rules of duty. Cic. Cf. § 274, R. 5, (c.) and R. 9.

- REM. 3. (a.) A noun is put in the ablative absolute, only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the leading clause. Cf. § 274, 3, (a.)
- (6.) Yet a few examples occur of a deviation from this principle, especially with a substantive pronoun referring to some word in the leading clause; as, Se audiente, scribit Thacquides. Cic. Lēgio ex castris Varrônis, adstante et inspectante ipso, signa sustalit. Cæs. Me düce, ad hunc võti finem, me milite, vēni. Ovid. So M. Porcius Cito, vivo quoque Scipione, allatrare éjus magnitudinem solitus èrat. Liv.

NOTE 2. Two participles must not be put together in the ablative absolute agreeing with the same noun. Thus, we may say Porcia sape maritum cogitantem invenerat, but not, Porcia marito cogitante invento.

Note 3 Instead of the ablative absolute denoting a cause, an accusative with 6b or propter occurs in Livy and in later writers; as, Cinôpum combibire Spartāni, ob sepultum illic rectorem nāris Cānōpum. Tac. Dēcemviri libros Sibultnos inspicēre jussi sunt propter territos hōmines nāris prodiciis. Liv.

Rem. 4. The ablative absolute serves to mark the time of an action, by reference to that of another action. If the present participle is used, the time of the action expressed by the participle, is the same as that of the principal verb. The perfect participle and the future in rus, denote respectively an action as prior or subsequent to that expressed by the principal verb.

Thus in the preceding examples—Pýthāgóras, Tarquinio regnante, in Itāliam vēnit, Pvthagoras canne into Italy during the reign of Tarquinius. Gulli, re 22- mita, obsidionem vēlinquunt, The Gauls, having learned the fact, abandon the siege. So, Rex āpum non nisi migrātītro exāmine forus procedit, The king-bed does nt ½ so abroad, except when a exam is about to emigrate. Plin.

- Note 4. Non prius quam, non nisi, ut, vilut, and tamquum, are sometimes demonstrated vilute participle; as, Tiberius excessum Augusti non prix, polum frei, quam Agrippă jucene interempto,—not until. Suet. Galli lett, ut explorata victoria, ad castra Rômanorum pergunt. Cass. Antiochus, tamquam non transitării in Asiam Rômânis, etc. Liv.
- Rem. 5. (a.) The construction of the ablative absolute with the perfect passive participle, arises frequently from the want of a participle of that tense in the active voice.
- Thus, for Cæsar, having sent forward the cavalry, was following with all his forces, we find, 'Cæsar, equitatu præmisso, subsequebatur omnibus copius.'
- (b.) As the perfect participle in Latin may be used for both the perfect active and the perfect passive participles in English, its meaning can, in many instances, be determined only by the connection, since the agent with a or ab is generally not expressed with this participle in the ablative absolute, as it is with other parts of the passive voice. Thus, Casar, his dictis, concilion dimisit, might be rendered, 'Casar, having said this, or this having been said (by some other person), dismissed the assembly.'
- (c.) As the perfect participles of deponent verbs correspond to perfect active participles in English, no such necessity exists for the use of the ablative absolute with them: as, Cesar, have locatus, concilium dimixit. In the following example, both constructions are united: Réque...agros Remorum dépopulati, omblus ricis, actificialque incensis. Ces.
- Rem. 6. The perfect participles of neuter deponent verbs, and some also of in the abolity deponents, which admit of both an active and a passive sense, are used in the ablative absolute; as, Orda lice. Cass. Vel exstincto rel clapso animo, nullum résidère sensum. Cic. Tam multis gibrium jus adeptis. Plin. Literas ad exercitus, tamquum àdepto principatiu, misit. Tac.
- REM. 7. (a.) As the verb sum has no present participle, two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, which might be the subject and predicate of a dependent clause, are put in the ablative absolute without a participle; as,
- Quid, addiescentillo düce, efficère possent, What they could do under the guidance of a youth. Cas. Me suäsore atque impulsore, hoe factum, By my advice and instigation. Plaut. Hanniballe vivo, While Haunibal was living. Kep. Invità Minervà, in opposition to one's genius. Cic. Celo sèrino, when the weather is clear. Virg. Me ignairo, without my knowledge. Cic. With names of office, the concrete noun is commonly used in the ablative absolute, rather than the corresponding abstract with in to denote the time of an event; as, Romann venut Mario conside, He came to Rome in the consulship of Marius. Cic.
- (b.) The nouns so used as predicates are by some grammarians considered as supplying the place of participles by expressing in themselves the action of a verb. Such are dux, cômes, adjutor and adjutrix, auctor, testis, jaidex, interpres, māqister and māqistra, preceptor and praecestrix; as, duce nātūrā, in the sense of aucente nātūrā, under the guidance of nature; jūdice Polipbio, according to the judgment of Polybius.
- REM. 8. A claufes sometimes supplies the place of the noun; as, Nondame comperto quam in regionem venises t rex. Liv. Audito venises nuncium. Theo valie dicto. Ovid. This construction, however, is confined to a few participles; as, audito, cognito, comperto, exploratio, despiratio, nunciato, dicto, dicto. But place of such participle is sometimes supplied by a neuter adjective in the ablative: as, Incerto pra tinebris quid pictirent. Liv. Cf. R. 7., (a.) Hand cuiquam dibito quih nostum essent. Id. Justa principles vera an ficta promeret. Tac.
- REM. 9. (1.) The noun in the ablative, like the subject nominative, is somemens wanting; (a) when it is contained in a preceding clause; as, Atticus Serviliam, Brüt in Attenn, non minus post mortem ijus, quan florente, colluit, scil. eo,

i. e Brūto. Nep. (b) When it is the general word for person or persons followed by a descriptive relative clause; as, Hannibal Iberum copius trajecit, præmissis, qui Alpium transitus spēculārentur. Liv. (c) When the participle in the neuter singular corresponds to the impersonal construction of neuter verbs in the passive voice; as, În amnis transgressu, multum certato, Bardesanes ruit. Tac. Mihi, errato, nulla věnia, recte facto, exigua laus proponitur. Cic. Quum, nondum pălâm facto, vivi mortuique promiscue complorarentur. Liv. Nam jam artate ea sum, ut non siet, peccăto, mi ignosci æquum; i. e. si peccătum fuerit. Ter. Cf. § 274, R. 5, (b.)

(2.) So in descriptions of the weather; as, Tranquillo, scil. mari, the sea being tranquil. Liv. Sereno, scil. cælo, the sky being clear. Id. Aranei sereno texunt, mubilo texunt,—in clear and in cloudy weather. Plin. Substantives when used thus are to be considered as ablatives of time; as, Comities, ludis, Circensibus. Suetonius has used proscriptione in the sense of 'during the proscription.' So pace et Principe. Tac. Império pópuli Rômani. Cæs.

Rem. 10. This ablative is sometimes connected to the preceding clause by a conjunction; as, Casar, quamquam obsidione Massilia retardante, brevi tamen omnia subēgit. Suet. Decemviri non ante, quam perlātis lēgibus, depositūros imperium esse aicbant. Liv.

Rem. 11. A predicate ablative is sometimes added to passive participles of namıng, choosing, etc. § 210, (3.); as, Hasdrubale imperatore suffecto. Liv.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

§ 258. Tenses, in regard to their connection, are divided into two classes-principal and historical.

A. The principal tenses are, the present, the perfect definite,

and the two futures.

- B. The historical, which are likewise called the preterite tenses (§ 145, N. 2.), are the imperfect, the historical perfect, and the pluperfect.
- I. In the connection of leading and dependent clauses, only tenses of the same class can, in general, be united with each other. Hence:-
- 1. A principal tense is followed by the present and perfect definite, and by the periphrastic form with sim. And:-
- 2. A preterite tense is followed by the imperfect and pluperfect, and by the periphrastic form with essem.

Note. The periphrastic forms in each class supply the want of subjunctive futures in the regular conjugation.

The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules:-

(a.) In the first class. Scio quid agas. Scio quid egeris. Scio quid acturus sis.—Auriri quid agas, I have heard what you are doing. Audici quid egeris Audivi quid acturus sis .- Audiam quid agas, etc .- Audivero quid agas, etc.

(b.) In the second class. Sciebam quid agéres. Sciebam quid egisses. Sciebam quid acturus esses .- Audiri quid ageres, I heard what you were doing. quid egisses. Audiri quid acturus esses.—Audireram quid ageres, etc.

The following may serve as additional examples in the first class; viz. of principal tenses depending on,

(1.) The PRESENT; as, Non sum ita hebes, ut istuc dicam. Cic. Quantum dolorem acceperim, tu existimare potes. Id. Nec dubito quin reditus ejus reipublice sălut iris futurus sit. Id.

- (2. The Perfect Definite; as, Sătis provisum est, ut ne quid âțere possint. Id. Quis misicis, quis huic stădio literărum se dedidit, quin onnem illărum artium rim comprehenderit. Id. Defectiones solis prædictæ sunt, quæ, quanta, quanto statiræ sint. Id.
- (3.) The FUTURES; as, Sic făcillime, quanta brâtbrum sit, semperque fucrit paucitas, jūdicabit. Id. Ad quos dies réditirus sim, scribam ad te. Id. Si sciéria sapidem litère uspiam, et velle l'âtquem impridentem siper eum assidire, câjus mors tibi émolümentum factūra sit, improbe feceris, nisi moniteris, ne assident. Id.

The following, also, are additional examples in the second class, viz. of pretente tenses depending on,

- (1.) The IMPERFECT; as, Unum illud extimescobam, ne quid turpiler facerem, rel jam effecissem. Cic. Non ènim dubitabam, quin eas libenter lectūrus eases. Id.
- (2.) The HISTORICAL PERFECT; as, Vēni in ējus tillam ut libros inde promörrem. Id. Hac quam essent nuntiāta, Vālērius clussem extemplo ad ostium flüminis duxit. Liv.
- (3.) The Pluperfect; as, Păvor cēpērat milites, ne mortiférum esset vulnus. Liv. Ego ex ipso audicram, quam a le libéraliter esset tractatus. Cic. Non sătis mihi constitérat, cum ăliquăne ânimi mei môlestiă, an pôtius libenter te Athēnis vistu us essem. Id.
- REMARK 1. (a.) When the present is used in narration for the historical perfect, it may, like the latter, be followed by the imperfect; as, Lēgātos mittuut, ut pācem impetrārent. Cæs.
- (b.) The present is also sometimes followed by the perfect subjunctive in its historical sense; as, Pandte nunc Hélicôna, dev, contasque môvête, Qui bello exciti rêges, que quemque sécâte Complerint campos acies. Virg.
- REM. 2. The perfect definite is often followed by the imperfect, even when a present action or state is spoken of, if it is possible to conceive of it in its progress, and not merely in its conclusion or result; and especially when the agent had an intention accompanying him from the beginning to the end of the action; as, Féci hoc, ut intelligeres, I have done this that you might uderstand; i. e. such was my intention from the beginning. Sunt philosophi et fuërunt, qui omnino nullum habère censerent humanarum rerum procurationem does. Cic.
- Rem. 3. (a.) The historical perfect is not regularly followed by the perfect subjunctive, as the latter is not, in general, used in reference to past action indefinite.
- (b.) These tenses are, however, sometimes used in connection, in the narrative of a past event, especially in Livy and Cornelius Nepos; as, Factum est ut plus quam collège Milliades valueirit. Nep.
- (c.) The imperfect and perfect are even found together after the historical perfect, when one action is represented as permanent or repeated, and the other simply as a fact; as, Adeo nihil miseriti sunt, ut incursiones facerent et Vévos in autum habuerint oppayadre. Liv.
- (d.) The historical perfect may even be followed by the present, when a general truth is to be expressed, and not merely one which is valid for the time indicated by the leading verb; as, Antiôcho pācem pētenti ad priôres conditiones nihil additum, Africāno predicante, nēque Rômānis, si vincantur, ânimos minui, nēque, si vincant, sēcundis rebus insolescēre. Just.
- REM. 4. (a.) As present infinitives and present participles depend for their time upon the verbs with which they are connected, they are followed by such tenses as those verbs may require; as, Apelles pictores quague eas peccare discussed and an entirem, quid esset satis. Cic. Ad te scripsi, te liviter accusans no eq. quoi de me cito credidises. In

(6.) In like manner the tense of the subjunctive following the infit tive future is determined by the verb on which such infinitive depends; as, Sol Phatithouti filso facturum se esse dixit quicquid optasset. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) The perfect infinitive follows the general rule, and takes after it a principal or a preterite tense, according as it is used in the definite or in the historical sense; as, Arbitrāmur nos eu præstitisse, qua rātio et doctrina præscripsérit. Cic. Est quod gaudeas te in ista lòca vénisse, übi āliquid săpēre viderer. Id.

(b.) But it may sometimes take a different tense, according to Rem. 2; as, Ita mihi videor et esse Deos, et quales essent sătis ostendisse. Cic.

II. Tenses belonging to different classes may be made dependent on each other, when the sense requires it.

(a.) Hence a present or perfect definite may follow a preterite, when the result of a past action extends so the present time; as, Artichat autem Hortensius cipiditate divendi sic, ut in nullo uniquam flagrantius stadium viderin; i. e. that up to this time I have never seen. Cic. And, on the other hand, a preterite may follow a pre-sent to express a continuing action in the past; as, Scifote oppidum esse in Sicilia nullum, quo in oppido non isti delecta mülier ad tibidinem essert (esset here alludes to the whole period of Verres' pretorship.) Cic.

(6.) But without violating the rule which requires similar tenses to depend upon each other, the hypothetical imperfect subjunctive, may be followed by the present or perfect subjunctive, since the imperfect subjunctive refers to the present time; as, Mimbraire possem quibus in locis maximus hostium copius populus Romanus parca manu fuderit. Sail. Possem here differs from copsum

only by the hypothetical form of the expression.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

§ 259. The indicative is used in every proposition in which the thing asserted is represented as a reality.

Note. Hence it is used even in the expression of conditions and suppositions with si, atsi, etsi, and étiamsi, when the writer, without intimating his own opinion, supposes a thing as actual, or, with asi, makes an exception, which, only for the sake of the inference, he regards as actual; as, Mors aut plane egligende set, si omnino exstinguit animum, aut étiam optanda, si âlquo eum deducit, abi sit futures aternus. Cic. Adiuc certe, ais égo insanio, stalte omnia et incuate frunt. Id.—It is likewise used in interrogations.

REMARK 1. The several tenses have already been defined, and their usual significations have been given in the paradigms. They are, however, sometimes otherwise rendered, one tense being apparently used with the meaning of another, either in the same or in a different mood. Thus,

(1.) (a.) The present is often used for the historical perfect in narration, see \$\frac{1}{15}\$, 1.3.—(b.) It is sometimes used also for the future to denote the certainty of an event, or to indicate passionate emotion. So, also, when the leading sentence contains the present imperative, si is often joined with the present instead of the future; as, difende si pôtes.—(c.) The present is also used for the imperfect or perfect, when it is joined with dum 'while'; as, Dum égo in Stotika sum, nulla stâtua dijecta est. Cic. It is even so used by Livy in transitions from one event to another; as, Dum in Asia bellum géritur, ne in Ælölis quidem quicte res fuèrunt. But the preterites are sometimes used with dum 'while'; and dum 's long as 'is regularly joined with the imperfect.

(2.) (a.) The perfect, in its proper signification, i. e. as a perfect definite, denotes an act or state terminated at the present time. Thus Horace, at the close of a work, says, Exegi monumentum are personnus; and Ovid, in like circumstances, Jamque opus exegi. So, also, Panthus in Virgil, in order to de-

note the utter run of Troy, exclaims, Fulmus Trões, fuit I lium i. e. we are ne longer Trojans, Ilium is no more.—(b.) The perfect indefinite ϵ thistorical perfect is used in relating past events, when no reference is to be made to the time of other events; as, Gesur Rubiconen transiti, Cesar crossed the Rubicon. (c.) As in the epistolary style the imperfect is used instead of the present, when an incomplete action is spoken of . 145, II. 3), so the historical perfect is in like circumstances employed instead of the present, when speaking of a completed action. With both the imperfect and perfect, when so used, however, the adverbs nome and étimmune may be used instead of tura and étiantum.

(d.) The historical perfect is sometimes used for the pluperfect in marration; as, Sed postquam as-pest, illico cognòric, But after I (had) looked at it, I recognized it immediately. Ter.—This is the usual construction after postquam construction after postquam. But which have the signification of 'as soon as,' and sometimes after priusquam. But when several conditions are to be expressed in past time, the pluperfect, the retained after these particles; as, blem similate se reinserat, nèque causa subèrut, quaire animi labbrem perferret, luxurious répéribâtur. Nep. So, also, postquam is joined with the pluperfect, when a definite time intervenes between events, so that there is no connection between them; us, Hamibala anno tertio, postquam domo profugicat, com quinque năcibus Africam accessit. Id.—In a very few passages the imperiect and pluperfect subjunctive are joined with postquam.

(3.) The pluperfect sometimes occurs, where in English we use the historical perfect; as, Dixernt, et spissis notis se condidit umbris, She (had) said, and hid herself in the thick shades of night. Virg. Sometimes, also, it is used for the historical perfect to express the rapidity with which events succeed each other; so, also, for the imperfect, to denote what had been and still was.

(4.) The future indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; as, Vālēbis, Farewell. Cic. And:—

(5.) The future perfect for the future; as, Alio lôco de ōrātōrum ānimo et in-jārits vidēro, I shall see (have seen)... Cic. This use seems to result from viewing a future action as if already done, and intimates the rapidity with which it will be completed.

REM. 2. When a future action is spoken of either in the future, or in the imperative, or the subjunctive nsed imperatively, and another future action is connected with it, the latter is expressed by the future tense, if the actions relate to the same time; as, Nātūrom si sequēmur dācem, numquam aberrābīrmus. Cic.; but by the future perfect, if the one must be completed before the other is performed; as, De Carthāgime vērēri non ante desinan, quem illan existem sess cognovero. Cic. In English the present is often used instead of the future perfect; as, Fāciam si pôtero, I will do it, if I can. Ut sēmentem fēcēris, tta mētes, As you sow, so you will reap. Cic.

Rem. 3. In expressions denoting the propriety, practicability or advantage of an action not performed, the indicative of the preterites (§ 145, N. 2.) is used, where the English idiom would have led us to expect the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive.

(a.) This construction occurs with the verbs oportet, necesse est, dobeo, convenit, possum, docet, lecet, reor, puto; and with pur, fas, copia, coquum, justum, consentaneum, satis, satius, coquius, mellius, attilius, optabilius, and optimum—est, erat, etc.

(b.) In this connection the imperfect indicative expresses things which are not, but the time for which is not yet past; the historical perfect and the pinperfect indicative, things which have not been, but the time for which is past; as, Ad morten te dicci jam pridem oportebat, i. e. thy execution was necessary and is still so; hence it ought to take place. Cic.—Longe ūtilius fuit augustios additas occipiere, It would have been much better to occupy the pass. Curt. Citilina crapia e senatu triumphans gaudio, quem omnino vivum illine exire non boortnerat. Cic.

- (c.) In both the periphrastic conjugations, also, the preterites of he indicative have frequently the meaning of the subjunctive; as, Tam bon constanter productioned fuit,—ought to have been kept. Ovid. This is more common in hypothetical sentences than in such as are independent.
- (d.) The indicative in such connections is retained, even when a hypotheti sal clause with the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive is added, and it is here in particular that the indicative preterites of the periphrastic conjugations are employed; as, Ques si dibia aut procut essent, timen onnes binos relipiblica considere decebut. Sall. Quodsi Ch. Pompeius privatus esset hoc tempore, timen erat mittendus. Cic.—Delieri totus correctus pount, si fagientes persécuti victores sesent. Liv. Quas nisi miramississet, torments étima dedendi fuerunt. Cic. Si te non inclnissem, periturus per pracipita fui. Petr. But the subjunctive also is admissible in such cases in the periphrastic conjugations.

REM. 4. (1.) The preterites of the indicative are often used for the pluperfect subjunctive, in the conclusion of a conditional clause, in order to render a dssc. pition more animated. They are so used,

- (a) When the inference has already partly come to pass, and would have been completely realized, if something else had or had not occurred, whence the adverb jum is frequently added; as, Jam fames quam pestilental tristion erat; at announe foret subscentum,—would have been worse. Liv. The same is expressed by the verb capi instead of jum; as, Britami circumire terga vincentum corperant, ni, etc. Tac. And without jum; Efficies Pisonis tracerant in Gemoinus ac divellebant (would have entirely destroyed them) mi, etc. It.
- (b.) The perfect and pluperfect are likewise used in this sense, and a thing which was never accomplished is thus, in a lively manner, described as completed; as, Et peractum erat bellum sine sunguine, si Pompeium opprimère Brumdisii (Caesar) poluisset. Hor.—The imperfect indicative is rarely used also, for the imperfect subjunctive, when this tense is found in the hypothetical clause; as, Stultum erat monère, usis fièret. Quint.—Sometimes, also, the pruterities of the indicative are thus used in the condition; as, At fuerat melius, it is to puer iste ténébat. Ovid. See § 261, R. I.
- (2) 'I ought' or 'I should,' is expressed by the indicative of debeo, and possum is in like manner often used for possem; as, Possum perséqui multa oblectamenta rerum rusticurum, sed, etc., I might speak of the many pleasures of husbandry, but, etc.; and it is usual in like manner to say, difficile est, longum est, infinium est, e.g., narrare, etc., for, 'it would be difficult,' 'it would lead too far,' 'there would be no end,' etc.
- (3.) The indicative is used in like manner after many general and relative expressions, especially after the pronouns and relative adverbs which are either doubled or have the suffix cumque; as, quisynis, quotynot, quicumque, at the constant of the c

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ 260. The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind.

Note. The subjunctive character of a proposition depends, not upon its substance, but upon its form. 'I believe,' 'I suppose,' are only conceptions, but my believing and supposing are stated as facts, and, of course, are expressed by means of the indicative. When, on the other hand, I say, 'I should be

lieve, 'I should suppose,' the acts of believing and supposing are represented not as facts, but as mere conceptions. Hence the verb that expresses the purpose or intention for which another act is performed, is put in the subjunctive, since it expresses only a conception; as, Edo ut vivam, I eat that I may live. This mood takes its name from its being commonly used in subjoined or dependent clauses attached to 'he main clause of a sentence by a subordinate connective. In some cases, however, it is found in independent clauses, or in such, at least, as have no obvious dependence.

I. The subjunctive, in some of its connections, is to be translated by the indicative, particularly in indirect questions, in clauses expressing a result, and after adverts of time; as,

Rögas me quid tristis sim,—why I am sad. Tac. Stellārum tanta est multitido, ut nāmērāri non possint,—that they cannot be counted. Quum Cesar esset in Gallā, When Cesar was in Gaul. Cæs.

II. The subjunctive is used to express what is contingent or hypothetical, including possibility, power, liberty, will, duty, and desire.

REMARK 1. The tenses of the subjunctive, thus used, have the significations which have been given in the paradigms, and are, in general, not limited, in regard to time, like the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Thus,

(1.) The present may refer either to present or future time; as, Médiocribus et quis ignoscas vilis tèneur, I am subject to moderate faults, and such as you may excuse. Hor. Orat a Clesire ut det sibi véniam, He begs of Cæsar that he would give him leave. Cæs.

(2.) The imperfect may relate either to past, present, or future time; as, (2.) The imperfect may relate either to past, present, or future time; as, Si filat faissent at civilerem, If it had been my fate that I should fall. Virg Si passem, sainor essem, I would be wiser, if I could. Ovid. Céttros rapèrent et prosternèrem. The rest I would seize and prostrate. Ter.

(3.) The perfect subjunctive has always a reference to present time, and i. equivalent to the indicative present or perfect definite; as, Errūrim fortasse, Perhaps I may have erred. Plin.—When it has a future signification it is not to be accounted a perfect, but the subjunctive of the future perfect. See Rem 4 and 7, (1.) But compare § 258, R. 1, (6.) and R. 3, (b.)

(4.) The pluperfect subjunctive relates to past time, expressing a contingency, which is usually future with respect to some past time mentioned is connection with it; as, Id responderunt se fuctures case, quam tile vento Agailom.

venisset Lemnum.... when he should have come.... Nep.

Rem. 2. The imperfects reliem, nollem, and movilem, in the first person, express a wish, the non-reality and impossibility of which are known; as, reliem, should have wished.—In the second person, where it implies an indefinite person, and also in the third when the subject is an indefinite person, the imperfect subjunctive is used in the sense of the pluperfect, and the condition is to be supplied by the mind. This is the case especially with the verbs, dico, pitto, arbitror, crédo; also with rideo, ceruo, and discerno; as, Mastique (créderes victos) rédeant in castra,—one might have thought that they were defeated. Liv. Pécunic an finne minus percèret, hand facile discerneres. Sall. Qui viderte équam Trojamum intréductum, urbem captam diceret. Cic. Quis umquam crédèret? Id. Quis pittaret? Id.—The imperfect subjunctive is frequently used, also, for the pluperfect in interrogative expressions; as, Socréas quam régarctur cajidem se esse dicèret, Mandimum, inquit. Id. Quod si quis deus diceret, nunquum phitarem me in Acidemia tunquam phitosophum disputaturum, If any god had said....I vever should have supposed. Cic.

REM. 3. The surjunctive in all its tenses may denote a supposition or concession; as, Vendat edes vir bönus, Suppose an honest man is selling a house. Cic. Dixerit Epiciurus, Grant that Epicurus could have said. Id. I iram anceps puyme fuerat fortium.—Fuisset, Grant that it might have been. Virg. Medas ceis Cic. Curbo fuil. Fuerit állis, He may have been to others Cic.—This concessive subjunctive is equivalent to esto ut.

REM 4. The present and perfect subjunctive are used in n ere ident prositions to soften an assertion. When so used, they do not infer essentially from the present and future indicative; as, Forsiton quartitis, You may perhaps ask. Veilin sie existings, I would wish you to think so. No mo istand this conceded, or concessorit, No one will grant you that. Hoe sine will admittione confirmaverim, cloquentiam rem esse one min difficultiman. This I will undestatingly affirm. Cic. Not ego contilierim placends sinus simico. Hor. The form which is called the perfect subjunctive, when thus used for the future, seems to be rather the subjunctive of the future perfect: see Rem. 7, (1.) Vôlo and its compounds are often so used in the present; as, Velim obvias min litera referent mins, I wish that you would frequently send, etc. Cic. The perfect subjunctive is also rarely used in the sense of a softened perfect indicative; as, Forsitan tehnér federim, I may have acted inconsiderately.

REM. 5. The subjunctive is used in all its tenses, in independent sentences, to express a doubtful question implying a negative answer; as, Quo erms? Whittier should I go? Quo irevins? Whitther should I go? Quo irevins? Whitther was I to have gone? One brissens? Whitther should I have gone? The answer implied in all these cases is, 'nowhere.' So, Quis dibltet quin in virtule dictitue sint? Who can doubt that riches consist in virtue? Cic. Quisquam nümen Jünānis üdöret pretéres? Virg. Quidni, inquit, mēminerim? Cic. Quis vellet tuni munitus esse mali? Ovid.

REM. 6. The present subjunctive is often used to express a wish, an exhortation, asseveration, request, command, or permission; as,

Möriur, si, etc. May I die, if, etc. Cic. Peream, si non, etc. May I perish, if, etc. Ovid. So, Ne sim sedeus. Cic. In mèdia arma ruimus, Let us rush... Virg. Ne me attingus, seèlesie I Do not touch me, villain! Ter. Făciat quod tâbet, Let him do what he pleuses. Id. The perfect is often so used; as, Ipse videirit, Let him see to it himself. Cic. Quan id recte fàciam, viderin săpientes. Id. Meminerimus, clium aderesus înfinos justitium esse servundam. Id. Nihâ incommòdo vélètădius tus fréciris. Id. Emnas, non quod ôpus est, sed quod nécesse est. Son. Dônis impii ne plâcăre audeant deus; Plătâmem audiant. Cic. Nătărum expels furcu, tâmen usque récurret. Hor.

(a.) The examples show that the present subjunctive, in the first person singular, is used in asseverations; in the first person plural, in requests and example that the present in the second and third persons of the present and sometimes of the perfect, in commands and permissions, thus supplying the place of the imperative, especially when the person is indefinite.

(b.) With these subjunctives, as with the imperative, the negative is usually not non but ne; as, ne dicas; ne dicat; ne dixeris. So, also, ne fuerit, for licet ne fuerit.

(c.) The subjunctive for the imperative occurs most frequently in the third person. In the second person it is used principally with ne; as, ne dicas. In the latter case the perfect very frequently takes the place of the present; as, ne dixbris. The subjunctive is also used in the second person, instead of the imperative, when the person is indefinite.

(d.) In precepts relating to past time, the imperfect and pluperfect, also, are used for the imperative; as, Forsian non nono vir fortis dizerii, restitisses, wortem pugnans oppotisses,—you should have resisted. Cic.

REM. 7. In the regular paradigms of the verb, no future subjunctive was exhibited either in the active or passive voice.

(1.) When the expression of futurity is contained in another part of the sentence, the future of the subjunctive is supplied by the other tenses of that mood, viz. the future subjunctive by the present and imperfect, and the future perfect by the perfect and pluperfect. Which of these four tenses is to be used depends on the leading verb and on the completeness or incompleteness of the action to be expressed. The perfect subjunctive appears to be also the sub-functive of the future perfect, and might not improperly be so called; as

Tentum môneo, hoc tempus si āmīsēris, te esse nullum umquum māgis löneum rēpertīrum, I only warn you, that, if you should lose this opportunity, you wili never find one more convenient. Cic.

- (2) If no other future is contained in the sentence, the place of the future subjunctive active is supplied by the participle in rus, with sim and essem; as, Non dibitat quin brevi Trija sit peritūra, He does not doubt that Trcy will sown be destroyed. Cic. In hypothetical sentences the form with fuerim takes the place of a pluperfect subjunctive; as, Quis enim dibitat, quin, si Sugandnis impligre tālissemus opem, totum in Hispāniam āversūri bellum fuerimus. Liv. The form in fuissem occurs also, but more rarely; as, Appārult, quandam excitātūra molem vēra fuisset clādes, quum, etc. See Periphrastic Conjugation, § 102, 14.
- (3.) The future subjunctive passive is supplied, not by the participle in dus, but by futurum sit or esset, with ut and the present or imperfect of the subjunctive; as, Non dubito quin futurum sit, ut laudétur, I do not doubt that he will be praised.

PROTASIS AND APODOSIS.

- § **261.** In a sentence containing a condition and a conclusion, the former is called the protăsis, the latter the apodŏsis.
- 1. In the protasis of conditional clauses with si and its compounds, the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive imply the non-existence of the action or state supposed, the imperfect, as in English, implying present time. In the apodosis the same tenses of the subjunctive denote what the result would be, or would have been, had the supposition in the protasis been a valid one; as,

Nisi te sătis incitătum esse confiderem, scriberem plūra, Did I not believe that you have been sufficiently incited, I would write more (Cic.); which implies that he does believe, and therefore will not write. Si Neptians, quod Théseo promisérat, non fecisset, Théseus fillo Hippolito non esset orbātus. Id.

The present and perfect subjunctive in the protasis, imply the real or possible existence of the action or state supposed; as,

Si rèlit, if he wishes, or, should wish, implying that he either does wish, or, at least, may wish. In the apodosis the present or perfect either of the sub-innetive or of the indicative may be used.

- REMAIR I. The tenses of the indicative may also be used in the protasis of a conditional sentence with si, etc.; as, Si vales, bine est. Cic. Si quis autea mirabatur quid esset, ex hoc tempore miritur potius... Id.—The conjunction si in the protasis is often omitted; as, Libet agros èmi. Primum quarro quos agros? If you will buy lands, I will first ask, etc. But the protasis may be rendered without if, and either with or without an interrogation, as, You will buy lands, or, Will you buy lands? The fiture perfect often occurs in the protasis of such sentences: as, Cisus médicusse lévarit agrum ex prucipiti, moiter delira nécibit, (Hor.) Should chance or the physician have saved him, the silly mother will destroy him. Si is in like manner omitted with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, in supposing a case which is known not to be a real one; as, Absque te esset, hôdie numquam ad sidem occasum viverem. Plant.
- REM. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive differ but slightly from the indicative, the latter giving to a sentence the form of reality, while the subjunctive represents it as a conception, which, however, may at the same time be a reality. The second person singular of the present and perfect subjunctive often occurs in addressing an indefinite person, where, if the person were definite, the indicative would be used; as, Mēmbria minuitur, niṣi cam exerceas Cis. When the imperfect or pluperfect is required to denote a past action,

the indicative must be used, if its existence is uncertain, as those tenses in the subjunctive would imply its non-existence. In the bratio obliqua, when the leading verb is a present or a future the same difference is observed between the tenses of the subjunctive as in Lypothetical sentences; but when the leading verb is a preterite the difference between possibility and impossibility is not expressed.

REM. 3. The present and perfect subjunctive are sometimes used, both in the pretasis and apodosis of a conditional sentence, in the sense of the imperfect and pluperfect, as, Tu, si hic sis, altier sentias, If you were here, you would think otherwise. Ter. Quos, ni mea curu resistat, jun flamme tülerint. Virg.

REM. 4. The protasis of a conditional sentence is frequently not expressed, but implied; as, Magno mercentur Atridae, i. e. si possint. Virg.; or is contained in a participial clause; as, Aqis, et ai multitudine victus, gloria timen connessoricit. Just. So, also, when the participle is in the ablative absolute; as, Domierm triphodae—divite me scilicet artium, quas and Parrhásius profatile, and Scópas. Hor. C. Mūcius Porsēnam interficēre, propositā sibi morte, conātus est. Cic. It is only in later writers that the concessive conjunctions etsi, quamquum, and quamnis are expressed with the participle, but timen is often found in the apodosis, even in the classic period, when a participial clause precedes as a protasis.

REM. 5. In hypothetical sentences relating to past time, the actions seem often to be transferred in a measure to the present by using the imperfect, either in the protasis or the apodosis, instead of the pluperfect, as, Quod certe non fecisset, is sum numerum (naudarum) naves habierent. Cic. Cimbri si stitim infesto againse urbem phissent, grande discrimen esset. Flor. Sometimes the imperfect, although the actions are completed, appears both in the protasis and the apodosis.

REM. 6. Nisi, nisi vėro, and nisi forte are joined with the indicative, when they introduce a correction. Nisi then signifies 'except'; as, Nescio; nisi hoc video. Cic. Nisi vėro, and nisi forte, 'unless perhaps,' introduce an exceptiou, and imply its improbability; as, Němo fère sallut sobrius, nisi forte instituit. Cic. Nisi forte in the sense of 'unless you suppose,' is commonly used ironically to introduce a case which is in reality inadmissible.

SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

A. Substantive Clauses.

§ **262.** A clause denoting the purpose, object, or result of a preceding proposition, takes the subjunctive after *ut*, *ne*, *quo*, *quin*, and *quŏmĭnus*; as,

Ea non, ut te instituérem, scripsi, I did not write that in order to instruct you. Cic. Irritant ad pupnandum, quo fiant acriòres, They stimulate them to fight, that they may become fiercer. Varr.

REMARK 1. Ut or ŭti, signifying 'that,' 'in order that,' or simply 'to' with the infinitive, relates either to a purpose or to a result. In the latter case it often refers to sic, ʿla, adeo, lam, tālis, tantus, is, ējusmādī, etc., in the preceding clause; as,

Id mili sic ërit grātum, ut grātims esse nihil possit. That will be so agreeable to me, that nothing can be more so. Gic. Non sum ita hêbes, ut istue dieam. Id. Noque tam érāmus āmentes, ut explorāta nobis esset victoria. Id. Tantum indulai ti lori, ut eum pietus vincèret. Nep. Ita und tam are sometimes omitted; as Epiaminondas fuit étiam disertus, ut nomo Thébūms ei par esset élôquentia, instead of tam disertus. Id. Esse ôportet ut vivus, non vivère ut édas. Auct. ad Her. Bol effect ut omais dioveant. Gic.

REM 2. Ut, signifying 'even if' or 'although,' expresses a supposition merely as a conception, and accordingly takes the subjunctive as,

Ut desint vires, tamen est laudanda voluntas, Though strength be wanting, yet the will is to be praised. Ovid. Ut, in this sense, takes the negative non; as, Exercitus si pacis nomen audierit, ut non referat pédem (even if it does not withdraw) insistet certe. Cic.

REM. 3. Ut, with the subjunctive denoting a result, is used with impersonal verbs signifying it happens, it remains, it follows, etc.; as,

Qui fit, ut nome coulentus vivat? How does it happen that uo one lives comtented? Hor. Huic contigit, ut patriam con servitate in libertatem vindicaret. Nep. Seguitur iqitur, ut eliam vita sint parca. Gic. Reliquum est, ut egomet mihi consilium. Nep. Restat iqitur, ut midas astrorum sit columbirius. Gic. Extremum illud est, ut te form et obsecrem. Id.

Note 1. To this principle may be referred the following verbs and phrases signifying 'it happens, 'viz. fit. fièri non pôtest, accidit, incidit, contingit, écènit, sur vênit, occurrit and est (it is the ease, or it happens, and hence esto, be it that):—and the following, signifying 'it remains,' or 'it follows,' viz. futūrum, extrēmum, prope, prozimum, and réliquum—est, relinquitur, sequitur, restat, and seiperest; and sometimes accèdit.

Note 2. Conlingit with the dative of the person is often joined with the infinitive, instead of the subjunctive with ut; as, Non cuivis hömini contingit didire Coviulum. Hor. And with esse also and other verbs of similar meaning, the predicate (as in the case of licet) is often found in the dative.—Sequitar and efficitur, it follows; have sometimes the accusative with the infinitive and sometimes the subjunctive; and nascitur, in the same sense, the subjunctive only.

Note 3. Mos or mòris est, consuétado or consuétadois est, and natúra or consuétado fert, are often followed by ut instead of the infinitive—Ut also occurs occasionally after meny such phrases as nôvum est, rirum, nâtûrâle, nêcesse, usitătum, mirum, singildire—est, etc., and after æquum, rectum, vêrum, tille, vêrismale, and integrum—est.

For other uses of ut, with the subjunctive, see § 273.

REM. 4. Ut is often omitted before the subjunctive, after verbs denoting willingness and permission; also after verbs of asking, advising, reminding, etc., and the imperatives dic and fac; as,

Quid vis făciam? What do you wish (that) I should do? Ter. Insâni feriant sine libra fluctus. Virg. Teutes dissimilare rôgat. Ovid. Id sinus ôvo. Id. Se suadêre, dixit, Pharmabazo id nêgôtii dâret. Nep. Accêdul ôportet actio vâria. Cie. Fac côgôtes. Sall. So, Vide ex nêvî efferantur, que, etc. Plaut

Verbs of willingness, etc., are võlo, mālo, permitlo, concēdo, pātior, sino, līcet, vēlo, etc.; those of asking, etc., are rēgo, öro, queso, mõnco, admõn-o, jūbeo, mando, pēto, prēcor, canseo, suādro, õportet, necesse est, possilo, horior, ctiro, dēceno, opto, impēro.

Rem. 5. Nē, 'that not,' 'in order that not,' or 'lest,' expresses a purpose negatively; as,

Cara ne quit ei disit. Take care that nothing be wanting to him. Cic. Nimo pradens panil, ut ait Pluto, quin peccatum est, sed ne peccatur. Id. Une is frequently used for ne, especially in soleum discourse, and hence in laws; as, Opira ditur, ut judicia ne funt. Id. Quo ne is used in the same manner in one passage of Horace. Missus ad hoc—quo ne per racuum Rômino incurreret hostis—On the other hand ut non is used when a simple result or consequence is to be expressed, in which case ita, sic, tam are either expressed or understood as, Turn force agrotibum, ut ad nupits taus venire non possem. In a few cases, however, ut 1 m is used for ne.—Ut non is further used, when the negation re-

fers to a particular word or to a part only of the sentence, as in similar cn-es si non must be used, and not nist; as, Confer te ad Maulium, ut a me non sjectus ad dilinos, sed invitatus ad two isse videaris. Cic.

Rem. 6. Ne is often omitted after care; as,

Cive putes, Take care not to suppose. Cic. Compare § 267, R. 3.

REM. 7. After mētuo, tīmeo, vēreor, and other expressions denoting fear or caution, nē must be rendered by that or lest, and ut by that vot.

Note 3. To the verbs metuo, timeo, and vereor are to be added the substantives expressing fear, apprehension or danger, and the verbs terreo, conterreo, deterreo, cáveo, to be on one's guard, ridéo and observo in requests (as, ridé, ridée and ridendum est), in the sense of 'to consider': as,

Milo métuébut, ne a serris indicăretur, Milo feared that he should be betrayed by his servants. Cie. Vêreor, ne, dam minuire celim bibărem, augeam. Id. Pător frut, ne custra hestic aggréderetur. Liv. 1the duo réreor, ut tibi possim concedère, 1 fear that I camor grant... Cie. Cacembun est ne assentativibus păt-étaciamus avres, neu dăldiri nos sinămus. Cie. Vide ne hoc bib obsit. Terruit gentes, grâve ne rédret sicălum Pyrrba. Multitădium déterrent, ne framentum conferint. Cres. Me misérum! ne prôma cădas. Ovid.

Note 4. Nere or nen is used as a continuative after ut and ne. It is properly equivalent to aut ne, but is also used for et ne after a preceding ut; as, on the other hand, et ne is used after a negation instead of aut ne; as, Ligen tallt, ne quis ante activem rerum accisioritur, neve multaretur. Nep. Cesar milites num longibre britione cohordius, quam uti sue pristime rirtais mémòrium riturement, neu perturbarentur animo—predii committendi signam débit. Cass. Neque, also, is sometimes used for et ne after ut and ne; as, U en pretermitam, neque es appetem. Cic. Cur non sancitis ne réclius patricio sit plébeius, nec ecidem lituére eat. Liv.—Ne non is sometimes used for ut after verbs of feating; as, Timeo ne no impêteren. I fear I shall not obtain it.

REM. 8. The proposition on which the subjunctive with ut and né depends, is sometimes omitted; as, Ut ita dicam. Cic. Ne singülos nöminem. Liv.

NOTE 5. Nedum, like ne, takes the subjunctive; as, Optimis tempöribus clörissimi viri vim tribūnicium sastnēre non potuērant; nedum his tempöribus sime jādiciòrum réneditis satir esse possimus,—still less, etc. Cic. Ne is sometines used in the sense of nedum; us, Novem eum potestitem (scil. tribūnòrum plebus) sérplère patribus nostris, ne nanc dulcidne sénal capit ferant desiderium. Liv.—Nedum without a verb has the meaning of an adverb, and commonly follows a negative; as, Ægre inermis tunda multitudo, nedum carmine, sustineri potest. Liv. Ne, also, is used in the same manner in Cic. Fam. 9, 26.

REM. 9. Quō, 'that,' in order that,' or, 'that by this means,' especially with a comparative; non quō, or non quod, 'not that,' 'not as if', non quin, 'not as if not'; which are followed in the apodòsis by sed quod, sed quia, or sed alone; and quōminus, 'that not,' after clauses denoting hinderance, take the subjunctive; as.

Adjula me, quo id fint facilius. Aid me, that that may be done more easily.

25. Non quo republică sit mihi quicquam cărius, sed desp rătis ciam Hippocratis
celut delhibre medicinum. Cic. Non quod sola ornent, sed quod excellant. Id.
Neque recusăril, quo miuns legis penam stibiret. Xep. Ego me dăcem în ciril
bello negăcii esse, non quin rectum esset, sed quia, etc. Cic. And instead of non
quin we may say non quo non, non quod non, or non qria non; und for nom qued,
one eq quo', or non tdeo quod.

REM. 10. Quin, after negative propositions and questions with quis and quid implying a negative, takes the subjunctive. Quin is used,

- 1. For a relative with non, after no nullus, nihil....est, reperies invenitus etc., viz est, egre répéritur, etc.; as, Messinam no venit, quin vi lierit, i. e qui non vièrit, No one came to Messana who did not see. Cie. Négo ullam pioturam fuisse...quin conquisiérit, i. e. quam non, etc. Id. Nhil est, quin multaurando possit deprávair. Ter. Quis est, quin cernat, quanta vis sit in sensious? Cie.
- Note 6. When quin is used for the relative it is commonly equivalent to the nominative qui, que, qued, but it is sometimes used in prose instead of the accusative, and sometimes after dies for quo, as the ablative of time; as, Dies fère nullus est, quin hie Satrius dòmann meann ventitet, i. e. quo—non ventitet. (ci.— Qui non is often used for quin; as, Quis etimi brat, qui non sciret. Id.; and when quin stands for qui non or quod non, is and id are sometimes added for the sake of emphasis; as, Cleunthes weignt ultum cibum esse tem grocem, quin is die et nocte concequatur. Cic. Nihil est quod sensum habent, quin id intéreat. Id.—So, also, the place of quin is supplied by ut non; v., Augustus numquam fillos suos populo commendirii ut non adjectre (withou: adding) si mérebuntur. Suet. And if no negation precedes, or if non belongs to a particular word, and not to the verb, qui mon and nt non must of course be used and not quin.
- 2. For ut now, 'that not,' or 'without' with a participle, especially after facere non possum, fier i non potest, nulla causa est, quid causa est? nihit causa est; as, Fuere non possum quin ad te mittam, i. e. ut non, etc. Cic. Numquam tam male est Sieulis, quin aliquist facete et commôde dieant. Cic. Numquam accède, quin abs te abeam doction—without going from you wiser. Ter.
- NOTE 7. Qu'un takes the subjunctive also after the negative expressions non dibito, non est dibium, non ambigo, I doubt not; non àbest; nilid, paulum, non procul, hand multum obest; non, cix, agre abstinco; tènère me, or tempérire mili non possum; non impélia, non récisa, nihil pretermita, and the like. In these cases, however, the negation in quin is superflutous, and it is generally translated into English by 'that,' but that,' or 'to' with an infinitive; as, Non dibito quin dômis id, that he is at home. Non multum àbest, quin miserrimus sim, Not much is wanting to make me most wretched. Cic. Hence, as quin is not in such cases regarded as a negative, non is superadded when a negative souse is required; as, In quibus non dibito quin offensionem negliquente critice at the effagive non possa. Cic. Dibitandum non est quin numquam possit útilitas cum hômestate contendêr. 14.
- Note 8. In Nepos, non diablo, in the sense of 'I do not doubt,' is always fol lowed by the infinitive with the accusative, and the same construction often occurs in later writers but not in Cicero: in the sense of to scruple or hesitate, when the verb following has the same subject, diablo and non diablo are generally followed by the infinitive; as, Cicero non dibitābat conjuritos supplicio affecire.—It may be added that 'I doubt whether' is expressed in Latin by diablo sitne, diablo utrum—an, diablo sitne—an, or diablo nun, numpud, for diablo an, and diablum est an are used, like nescio an with an affirmative meaning.
- Note 9. Quin signifies also 'why not?' being compounded of the old ablative qu'and ne, i. e. mon, and in this sense is joined with the indicative in questions inaplying an exhoration; as, Quin conse undimus equos? Why not mount our horses? In this sense it is also joined with the imperative; as, Quin dio statim, Well, tell me: or with the first person of the subjunctive. Hence wishout being joined to any verb it signifies 'even' or 'rather.'
- REM. 11. The principal verbs of hinderance, after which quantum occurs, and after which ne, and, if a negative precedes, quin also may be used, are deterreo, impilio, intereido, obsisto, obsto, officio, prohibeo, réciso, and répagno. It occurs also after stat or fit per me, I am the eause, non pugno, nihil morror, non confineo me, etc.
- Note. Impēdio, dēterreo, and rēcūso are sometimes, and prôhibeo frequently followed by the infinitive. Instead of quōmīnus, quo sēcius is sometimes used.

- \$ 263. The particles specified in this section always introduce a sentence con taining only a conception of the mind, and are hence joined with the subjunctive.
- 1. The subjunctive is used after particles of wishing, as $\[muin am, \[muin am, \[muin$

Utinam mīnus vītæ cūpīdī fuissēmus! O that we had been less attached to life i Cic. O si sölītæ quicquam virtūtīs ādesset! Virg.

REMARK. The present and perfect tenses, after these particles, are used in reference to those wishes which are conceived as possible; the imperfect and pluperfect are employed in expressing those wishes which are conceived as wanting in reality. Cf. § 261, 1 and 2.—'Would that not' is expressed in Latin both by alinam re and alinam non. Ulinam is sometimes omitted; as, Tecum ladder start logs possent? Catull.

B. Adverbial Clauses.

 (1) Quamvis, however; licet, although; tamquam, tamquam si, quāsi, ac si, ut si, vēlut, vēlut si, vēlūti, sīcūti, and ceu, as if; modo, dum, and dummodo, provided,—take the subjunctive; as,

Quanvis ille f'élix sit, tâmen, etc. However happy he may be, still, etc. Cic. Véritas licet nullum d'élessièrem obtineat, Though truth should obtain no defender. Id. Tamquam clausa sit Asia, sie nihil perfertur ad nos. Id. Sed quid ègo his testivus ûtor, quisi rest dibin aut obscàra sit? Id. Me omnibus ribus, juxta a si meus fratter esset, sustentieit, He supported me in every thing, just as though he were my brother. Id. Similiter fiéére eos,—ut si naute certâvent, ater, etc. Id. Absent's Ariosisti créalètlatem, velu si corum adesset, horrêrent. Cæs. Inque sinus cares, veluit cognosceret, ibnt. Ovid. Stenti jurgio lacessitus foret, in sinatum vent. Sall. Hie véro inquetum pupuna, cen cétére nusquam bella forent. Virg. Odérint dum metuant. Att in Cic. Manent ingénia séntius, modo permanent stabium et industria. Cic. Omnia hônesta negliguat dummödo pôtentum conséquantur, They disregard every honorable principle, provided they can obtain power. Id.

- Note. Mödo, dum, and dummódo, when joined with a negation, become mödo ne, dum ne, and dummódo ne.
- (2.) Quamris (although) is in Cicero joined with a principal tense of the sub-junctive; as, Quamvis non fueris suäser, approbator certe fuist. Cic. In later writers it is often used with the indicative; as, Felicen Nibben, quamvis tot fundra vidit. Ovid. So also once in Cicero, Quamvis patrem suum numquam viderut. Rab. Post. 2.
- (3.) Quamvis, as a conjunction, in the sense of 'however much,' is joined with the subjunctive. So also when its component parts are -eparated; as, C. Gracchus dixit, sibi in somnis Tt. fratrem visum vsse divire, quam vellet came tarëtur, timen, etc.— Quamvis 'however much,' as an adverb, governs no particular mood.
- (4.) Etsi, tămetsi, even if, although, and quamquam, although, commonly introduce an indicative clause:—ētiamsi is more frequently followed by the subjunctive. In later prose writers, and sometimes in Cicero and Sallust as well as in the poets, quamquam is joined with the subjunctive; as, Quamquam presente Lücullo lõquar. Cic. Vi rēgēre putriam quamquam possis. Sall. Jug. 3. Filus quamquam Thētdos mārine Dardānas turres quāterēt. Hor.

REMARK. The imperfect subjunctive with ac si, etc., is used after the present, to denote that in reality the thing is not so, but in that case a hypothetical subjunctive must be supplied; as, Eguditi rem ut tucare aque a te peto, ac si mea negotia essent, i. e. ac peterem, si mea negotia essent, as I would pray if, etc. Cic.

3. After antequam and priusquam, the imperfect and pluperfect tenses are usually in the subjunctive; the present and perfect may be either in the indicative or subjunctive. The present indicative is commonly used when the action is to be represented as certain, near at hand, or already begun; the subjunctive is used when the thing is still doubtful, and also in general propositions; as,

Ea causa ante mortua est, quam tu nātus esses, That cause was dead before you were born. Cie. Avertit ēquos, priusquam pābūla gustassent Trējae, Xan-biumque bibissent. Virg. Priusquam incipias, consulto ōpus est, Before you be-

gin there is need of counsel. Sall.

 (1.) Dum, donec, and quoad, signifying until, are followed by the subjunctive, if they refer to the attainment of an object; as,

Dum hic veniret, lòcum rélinquère nôluit, He was unwilling to leave the place until he (Milo) should come. Cie. Nihil pito tibi esse itilius quam oppérir quoad scire possis, quid thi degadam sit. Id. Cornu têtendit, et duxil tonge, dônec curvéta coirent inter se cipita. Virg.—In the sense of 'as long as,' these particles take the indicative, but Tacitus joins dônec with the subjunctive even when a simple fact is to be expressed.

(2.) Dum, while, is commonly used with the indicative present, whatever may be the tense of the principal sentence. Cf. § 259, R. 1, (1.1, (α.)

 Qaum (cum), when it signifies a relation of time, takes the indicative; when it denotes a connection of thought, the subjunctive; as,

Qui non défendit injūriam, nėpus rėpulsat a suis, quum pôtest, injuste fácit. Cic. Quum recte nětgári pôteřit, tom uvirges, ld. Crédo tum, quum Sicilia flörebat ôpibus et côpiis, magna artificia fixisse in eā insidia. dd. Quum tot sustineas et tauta nėgáta, peccem, si môrer tua tempôra, Since vou are burdened with so many and so important affairs, I should do wrong, if I should occupy your time. Hor. Quum eita sine âmicis mētus plēna sit, ratio ipsa mônet âmicitus compârâre. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) The rule for the use of quum may be thus expressed: Quum temporal takes the indicative, quum causal the subjunctive. Hence, when quam is merely a particle of time, with no reference to cause and effect, and not occurring in a historical narrative (see Rem. 2), it may be joined with any tense of the indicative. But when it is employed to express the relation of cause and effect, or has the meaning of 'though' or 'although,' it is joined with the subjunctive (b.) Quum, relating to time, is commonly translated when, while, or after; referring to a train of though, it is signifies as, since, though or although, because; but may often be translated when.

REM. 2. In narration, quum, even when it relates to time, is joined with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, when a historical perfect stands in the principal clause; as,

Gracchus, quum rem illam in religionem populo venisse sentīret, ad sēnātum rei ūlit. Cic. Alexander, quum interemisset Clitum, vix minus a se abstinuit. Id.

Note. Quam temporal, when it expresses an action frequently repeated, may be joined with the pluperfect indicative, and the apodosis then contains the imperfect; as, Quum antem vir esse coperat, dābat se lubēri. Cic. Quum rosum vidērat, tum incipēre ver arbitrābātur. Id. Cf. § 264, 12.

REM. 3. Quum in the sense of 'while' is joined with the perfect and imperfect indicative, often with the addition of interea or interin, to express simultaneous occurrences; as, Citálus cépit magnum suc virtatis fructum, quum omes pròpe mui vice, in co ipso cos speu habituros esse, dixistis. Cic. Civilebatur virgis

ın médio föro Messanæ cīvis Rōmānus, jūdīces, quum intérea nulla voz ália istim wisēri audiēbātur, nisi hæc: cīvis Rōmānus sum. Id.

REM. 4. Quams, for the most part preceded by an adverb, as, jam, nondum, vitx, agre, or joined with ripente or subto is followed by the ind cative, especially by the present indicative, to express the beginning of an action. In the cases mentioned in this and the preceding remark, the historians also use quam with the historical infinitive.

For the subjunctive after st and its compounds, see § 261.

C. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER QUI.

- § 264. Relatives require the subjunctive, when the clauses connected by them express merely a conception; as, for example, a consequence, an innate quality, a cause, motive, or purpose.
- 1 (a.) When the relative qui, in a clause denoting a result of the character or quality of something specified in the antecedent clause, follows a demonstrative, and is equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, it takes the subjunctive.

Note. The demonstratives after which qui takes the subjunctive, are tam with an addretive, tantus, tālis, ējusmōdi, hājusmōdi, and is, ille, iste, and hic in the sense of tālis; as,

Quis est tan Lyneïus, qui in tantis tênebris nthil offendat? i. e. ut ille in tantis, etc., Who is so quick-sighted, that he would not stumble, (or, as not to stumble,) in such darkness. Cic. Tilem te esse ôportet, qui ab impiòrum cirium sòciètăte sejungas; i. e. ut tu, etc. Id. At ea fuit legăto Octarii, in quă pêricătă suspicio una săbesset, i. e. ut in eă. Id. Nec timen êgo sum ille ferreus, qui frătris cărissimi murôre non movear, i. e. ut êgo non movear. Id. Non sămus ii, quibus nihil verum esse videătur, i. e. ut nôbis nihil, etc. Id. Nulla gens tum feru est, cojus mentem non imbuerit debrum opino, i. e. ut rjus mentem, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the demonstrative word is only implied; as,

Res parva dictu, sed quæ stådiis in magnum certāmen excessērit, i. e. tölis puæ...of such a kind that it issued in a violent contest. Cic. Nunc dicis āliquid, nod ad ren pertineat, i. e. tāle ui d. etc. ld. So quis sum, for num tälls sum; as, Quis sum, cājus aures lædī nēfas sit? Sen.—In like manner, also, a demonstrative denoting a character or quality, is implied in the examples included in the following rule:—

2. When the relative is equivalent to quamquam is, etsi is, or dummodo is, it takes the subjunctive; as,

Laco, consilii quamvis ēgrēgii, quod non ipse afferret, inanicus, Laco, an opponent of any measure, however excellent, provided he did not himself propose it. Tac. Tu aquam a pāmice postālas, qui ipsus sītiat. Plaut. Nihil molestum, quod non distilc res, i. e. dummodo id. Cic.

3. Quad, in restrictive clauses, takes the subjunctive; as,

Quad sciam as far as I know; quod mēminērim, as far as I recollect; quod ēgo untelligum; qu-d intelliqui possit; quod conjecturā providēri possit; quod salvā fide possin; quod commēdo tuo fint, etc.—Quidem is sometimes added to the relative in such sentences. Quod sine molestiā tuā fiat, So far as it can be done without troubling you. Cic. In the phrasse quantum possum, quantum ēgo perspicu, on the other hand, the indicative is used.

4. A relative clause, after the comparative followed by quam, takes the subjunctive; as,

Mājor sum, quam cui possit fortūna nocere, i. e. quam ut mīdi, etc., I am toc great for fortune to be able to injure me. Ovid. Andīdī vēce præcēnis mājut gaudium fuit, quam quod ūniversum homines caprent, Upon the herald's voice being heard, the joy was too great for the people to contain. Liv.

REMARK 1. The clause annexed by quam qui implies an inherent quality or a consequence; so that quam qui is equivalent to quam ut, which also sorretimes occurs. Sometimes the subjunctive follows quam even without a relative pronoun; as, In his like is longior fui, quam aut vellen, aut quam me putan fore:—and so frequently with the verbs relie and posse.

 A relative chuse expressing a purpose, aim, or motive, and equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, takes the subjunctive; as,

Lăcelamănii legătos Athenas misērunt, qui eum absentem accisărent: i. e. ut ülli eum accăsărent, The Lacedæmonians sent ambassadors to Athens to accuse him in his absence. Nep. Casar equitătum omnem premittit, qui videant, quas în partes tier făciant. Cass. Sunt autem multi, qui êripiunt âtiis, quod âtiis largiantur. Cic. Assilue répétant, quas perdant, Bătles undus. Ovin

Rem. 2. So also with relative adverbs; as, Lampsācum ei (Thēnistocli) rex dönārat, unde vinum sūmēret, i. e. ex quā or ut inde, etc. Nep. Sūper tābernācūlum rēgis, unde ab omnībus conspīci posset, imāgo sõlis crystallo inclūsa fulgēbat. Curt.

6. A relative clause with the subjunctive after certain indefinite general expressions, specifies the circumstances which characterize the individual or class indefinitely referred to in the leading clause;

Fubrunt et tempestate, qui dicerent, There were at that time some who said. Sail. Erant, quibus appétentior fiance, viderettur, There were those to whom he appeared too destrous of fame. Tac. Snnt, qui censeant, time animum et corpus occidère. Cic. Erant, qui existimări velint. Id. Si quis crit, qui perpetuam orationem desideret, altera actione madiet. Id. Venient légiones, quae néque me multum néque te impănitum pătiantur. Tac. So after est followed by quoc in the sense of 'there is reason why'; as, Est quod gandeus, You have cause to rejoice. Plant. Est quod visam domum. Id. Si est quod desit, ue beatus outlem est. Cic.

Note 1. The expressions included in the rule are est, sunt, adest, præsto sunt, existent, exorientur, inventuntur, reperiuntur, (scil. homines); si quis est, tempus fuit, tempus veniet, etc.

REM. 3. The same construction occurs with relative particles used indefinitely; as, Est unde hac finnt. Si est culpram ut Antipho in se admisirit, If it chance that, etc. Ter. Est ūbi id isto modo vident. Cic. So est cur and est ut in the sense of est cur; as, Ille érat, ut odisset défensérem saldits meze, i. e. he had rea-on to hate. Cic. Non est ligitur ut mirandum sit, There is no occasion for wondering. Id.

REM. 4. The above and similar expressions are followed by the subjunctive only when they are indefinite. Hence, after sunt quidam, sunt nonnulli, eunt multi, etc., when referring to definite persons, the relative takes the indicative; as, Sent trationes quadtum, quas Menocrito dabo. Cic.

Rem. 5. The indicative is sometimes, though rarely, used after sunt quieven when taken indefinitely, especially in the poets; as, Sunt, quos jūvat. Hor Sunt qui tu dicunt. Sall.

 A relative clause after a general negative, or an interrogative expression implying a negative, takes the subjunctive; as, Nimo est, qui haud intelligat, There is no one who does not understand. Cic. Nulla res est, quæ perferre possit continuam libérem, There is nothing which can endure perpetual labor. Quint. Nulla purs est corporis, quæ non sit minor. Id. Nihil est, quod lam miséros fàciat, quam impiétas et sollus. Cic. In for via décima graisque est, qui jusus sèse nosent. Plant. Quis est, qui útila figiat? Who is there that shuns what is useful? Cic. Que littera est, in quam non inter métus mortis? Sen. Quid dulcius quam hibère, quicum omnia audens sic lòqui ut lècum? Cic. (See respecting this use of the indefinite quicum rather than the definite quòcum, § 138, R. 1.) An est quisquam, qui hoc ignorat oft list? Id. Numquid est mult, quod non dixèris? Ter.

Nore 2. General negatives are nêmo, nullus, nihil, inus non, ilius non, non quisquam, eix ullus, nec ullus, etc., with st: vix with an ordinal and quisque; nêgo esse quemquam, etc. Interrogative expressions implying a negative, are quis, quid; qui, que, quod, quantus, iter, requis, numquis, au quisquam, an aliquis, quotus quisque, quotus, etc., with set? quod, quan multi, etc., with sund?

Note 3. The same construction is used after non est, nihil est, quid est, nect, followed by quod, cur, quare, or quarenorem, and denoting 'there is no reason why,' 'what cause is there?' 'is there any reason?' as, Quod timens, non est, There is no reason why you should fear. O'tal. Nihil est, quod adventum nostrum pertimescas. Cie. Quid est, quod de 'gius civilate dibittes? Id. Queris a me, quid ego Cătilnam mêtuem. Nihil, et cărăvi ne quis mêtuêret. Quid est, cur virtus ipas per se non efficiat beăist Îd.—So after non hibeo, or nihil habeo; as, Non hibeo, quod te accūsem. Cie. Ni hibeo, quod agam, I have nothing to do. Hor. Nihil habeo, quod ad te scribam. Cic. So without a negative, De quibus hibeo ipse, quid sentiam. Id. Cuasa or, with quid and nihil, causa, is sometimes added; as, Non fuit causa, cur postulares. Id. Quid êrat causa, cur mêtuêret. Id.

Norm 4. (a.) The relative clause takes the subjunctive after the expressions included in this and the last rule, only when it expresses the character or quality of the subject of the antecedent clause; and the relative, as in the preceding cases of the relative with the subjunctive, is equivalent to a personal or demonstrative pronoun with ut; as, Nème est, qui nesciat, There is no one who is ignorant, i. e. no one is ignorant. Cic. So, Sunt, qui hoc carpant, There are some who blame this, i.e. some blame this. Vel.

(b.) If the relative clause is to be construed as a part of the logical subject it does not require the subjunctive; as, Nihil stabile est, quad infidum est Nothing which is faithless is firm. Cic.

8. (1.) A relative clause expressing the reason of what goes before, takes the subjunctive; as,

Peccărisse nilni videor, qui a te discesserim, I think I did wrong in leaving you. Cic. Inertiam accisas addescentium, qui istam artem non ēdiscant, You blame the idleness of the young men, because they do not learn tifat art. Id. O fortināte ādolescens, qui tuw virtātis Homerum procenem invēnēris!—in having found. Id. Cianinus fuit mirificā vigilantiā, qui suo toto considātu sommum non vidērit,—since, etc. Id.

(2.) Sometimes, instead of qui alone, ut qui, quippe qui, or utpots qui, is used, generally with the subjunctive; as,

Onview cam putre non inibat, quippe qui ne in oppidum quidem nisi perrara venisset. Cic. Noque Antonius procud diberat, utpote qui magno exercitu sequecetur. Sall. But sometimes with the indicative in Sallust and Livy; as, Quippe qui omnia vicerat. Sall.

 After dignus, indignus, aptus, and idoneus, a relative clause takes the subjunctive; as,

Videtur, qui diquendo impèret, dignus esse, He seems to be worthy at some time to command. Cie. Rustici nostri quum f'idem dilicijus bônitatem/pu laudant, dignum esse dicunt, quicum in tinebris mices. Id. Nulla videbitur aptior persona, quæ de ætate loqueretur. Id. Pompeius Idoneus non est, qui impetret. Id Et rem idoneam, de qua quæratur, et homines dignos, quibuscum dissératur, putant. Id.

Note 5. If the relative clause does not express that of which the person or thing denoted by the antecedent is worthy, its construction is not influenced by this rule. Thus, Quis servus libertate digrams full, cut mostra salas câra non casel? The subjunctive is here used according to No. 7 of this section.

Note 6. The infinitive frequently follows these adjectives in poetry, though rarely in prose; as, Et puer ipse fuit cantari dignus. Virg :- and sometimes ut; as, Eras dignus, ut haberes integram manum. Quint.

 A relative clause, after ūnus, solus, prīmus, etc., restricting the affirmation to a particular subject, takes the subjunctive; as,

Hee est una contentio, quæ adhuc permanserit, This is the only dispute which has remained till this time. Cic. Voluptas est sola, quæ nos vocet ad se, et alliceat suapte natūrā, Pleasure is the only thing that, by its own nature, invites and allures us to itself. Id.

- 11. When the relative refers to a dependent clause, it often takes the subjunctive. See § 266.
- The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in narration after relative pronouns and adverbs, when a repeated action is spoken of; as,

Semper hăbiti sunt fortissimi, qui summam imperii pătirentur, Those were always accounted the bravest, who obtained the supreme dominion. Nep. Quemeumque lictor jusu consilis prehendisset, bribans mitti jubbent. Liv Ut quisque maxime laboraret bicus, aut juse occurrichut, aut diquos mittibut. So after si quis or qui; as, Si qui rem mălitiosius gessisset, dedecus existimabant. Cic. Quotiens super tali negotio consultaret, edita domus parte utebatur. Tac. Nec quisquam Pyrrhum, qua tulisset impetum, sustinere valuit.—It is sometimes found in like manner after quam, with, ut, and si when used in the sense of quam, when repeated actions are spoken of; as, Id bbi dixisset, hastam in fines eorum emittebat. Liv. Sin Nămide propius accessissent, ibi vero virtutem ostendire. Sall. Sometimes even the present subjunctive is so used when employed as an agrist to express things which have happened repeatedly, and still happen (see § 145, I. 2.); as, Ubi de magnā virtūte et gloriā bonorum mēmores, quæ sibi quisque, etc. Sall.

Note 7. This is called the indefinite subjunctive, or subjunctive of generality, inasmuch as the action is not referred to a distinct, individual case. The indicative, however, is used in such cases more frequently than the subjunctive.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

§ 265. Dependent clauses, containing an indirect question, ake the subjunctive.

Note 1. A question is indirect when its substance is stated in a dependent plause without the interrogative form. Indirect questions generally depend upon those verbs and expressions which commonly take after them the accusa-

tive with the infinitive. Cf. § 272. Thus:-

Qualis sit animus, ipse animus nescit, The mind itself knows not what the mind is. Cic. Crēdbile non est, quantum serībam, It is incredible how much I write. Id. Quis ego sim, me rogītas? Do you ask me who I am? Plaut. Ad te quid scribam nescio. Cic. Nec quid scribam habeo, Nor have I any thing to write. Id. Doce me, ubi sint dii, Inform me where the gods are. Id. Incertum est, quo te loco mors exspectet. Sen. Ep. Quam pridem sibi héréditas venisset, diet. Id. Nunc accipe, quare desipiant omnes. Hor. Id utrum illi sentiant, an vēro similent, tu intelliges. Cic. Quæro, num tu sēnātui causam tuam permittas. Id Vides, ut alta stet uve candidum Soracte. Hor. Nescit, vitane fruatur, an sit apud manes. Ovid.

Note 2. All interrogatives whether adjectives, pronouns, or particles, may serve as connectives of clauses containing indirect ques tions: as.

Quantus, quatis, quot, quotus, quotuplex, uter; quis, qui, cujas; uti, quo, unde, qua quorsum, quamdiu, quamdudum, quampridem, quoties, cur, quare, quamobrem, quemad modum, quomodo, ut, quam, quantopere, an, ne, num, utrum, anne, annon.

- The indicative is frequently used in dependent questions, REMARK 1. especially in Terence and Plantus and occasionally in later poets; as, Vide avaritua quid făcit. Ter. So Virg. Ecl. 5, 7. In the best prose writers the indicative generally indicates that the question is direct, or that the sentence is not a question; as, Queramus ubi mulef reium est, Let us seek there, where the crime actually is. Cic. Nihil est admirābilius, quam quomodo ille mortem filis
- Rem. 2. In double questions, 'whether—or,' the first may be introduced by utrum, or the enclitic ne, or without an interrogative particle. Hence there are four forms of double questions,-1. utrum (or utrum ne),-an. 2. utrum, -an (anne). 3. -ne, — an. 4. -ne, — -ne; as, Multum intérest, utrum laus imminuatur, an sălus deseratur. Cic. The interrogative particle utrum is not used in a single question; and num-an is used only in direct questions. The English 'or not' in the second part, which is used without a verb, is expressed in Latin by annon or necne, either with or without a verb; but necne occurs only in indirect questions; as, Dii utrum sint, necne sint, quaritur. Cic.-Nene, an-an, or num-num searcely occur except in poetical or unclassical lan-
- Rem. 3. Dăbito, dăbium est, or incertum est un, delibero or hæsito an, and especially haud scio an, nescio an, though implying some doubt, have generally a sense almost affirmative. Compare § 198, 11, R. (e.)
- Rem. 4. Nescio quis, used nearly in the sense of aliquis, does not influence the mood of the following verb; as, Sed casa nescio quo in ea tempora ætas nostra incidit. Cic. Lūcus, nescio quo cāsu, nocturno tempore incensus est. Nep. So, also, nescio quomodo, 'somehow' or 'in some way'; as, Sed nescio quomodo, inhæret in mentibus quăsi augurium. Cic. In like manner mirum quam, mirum quantum, nimium quantum, and the like, when united to express only one dea, do not affect the in d of the verb; as, Siles in dicendo nimium quantum vilent,-very much. Cic

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INSERTED CLAUSES.

§ 266. 1. When a dependent proposition containing either an accusative with the infinitive, or a verb in the subjunctive, has a clause connected with it, as an essential part, either by a relative, a relative adverb, or a conjunction, the verb of the latter clause is put in the subjunctive; as,

Quid enim potest esse tam perspicuum, quam esse aliquod numen, quo kac regantur? For what can be so clear as, that there is some divinity by whom, these things are governed? Cic. Here the thing which is stated to be clear is, not merely esse aliqued namen, that there is a god, but also that the world is governed by him. Hence the latter clause, quo have regantur is an essential part of the general proposition. Illud sic fere definiri solet, decorum id esse, quoa consentaneum sit hominis excellentice. Id. Audiam quid sit, quod Epicarum non probes, I shall hear why it is that you do not approve ce Epicurus Id Justi ut, que ven'ssent naves Eubieum peterent. Liv.

REMARK 1. Hence the subjunctive is used in general sentences, in which the class of things mentioned exists only as a conception or idea, while the individual thing has a real existence; as, Est enim ulciscendi et piniendi modus, atque haud scio an sătis sit eum qui lăcessierit înjuriæ suæ pænitere, i. e. each individual offender of the class.

Rem. 2. When the principal proposition contains a subjunctive denoting a result, after ita, tam, talis, etc., the inserted clause has the indicative; as, Asia vēro tam opima est et fertilis, ut-multitudine earum rērum, quæ exportantur, făcile omathus terris anticellut. Cic. The same is the case in definitions; as, Videre igitur oportet, qua sint convenientia cum ipso negotio, hoc est, qua ab re sépáráre non posunt. Cic.—So also explanatory clauses, especially circumlo-entions introduced by a relative pronoun, are sometimes found with the indic-ative; as, Itaque ille Morius item eximie L. Plotium dilexit, cajas ingémo putabat ea, quæ gessérat, posse cělebrári. Cič.

Note. To this rule belongs the construction of the oratio obliqua, 'indirect discourse,' or 'reported speech,' in which the language of another is presented, not as it was conceived or expressed by him, but in the third person. Thus Cassar said, 'I came, I saw, I conquered,' is direct,—Cassar said, that 'he came, saw, and conquered,' is indirect discourse.

 In the orātio oblīqua, the main proposition is expressed by the accusative with the infinitive; and dependent clauses con nected with it by relatives and particles, take the subjunctive.

Thus, Cicero and Quintilian, in quoting the language of Marcus Antonius make use, the former of the oratio directa, the latter of the oratio obliqua; Antonius inquit, 'Ars earum rerum est, quæ sciuntur', Antonius says, 'Art belongs to those things which are known.' Cic. Antonius inquit, artem earum rerum esse, quæ sciantur, Antonius says, that 'art belongs to those things

which are known.' Quint.

So, Socrates dicere solebat, omnes, in eo quod scirent, satis esse eloquentes, Socrates was accustomed to say, that 'all were sufficiently eloquent in that which they understood? Cic. Cito mīrāri se aiebat, quod non ridēret hāruspex, hāruspicem quum vidisset. Id. Negat jus esse, qui miles non sit, pugnare cum hoste. Id. Indignābantur ībi esse impērium, ŭbi non esset libertas. Liv. Ităque Athēnienses quod honestum non esset, id ne ūtile quidem (esse) pūtāvērunt. Cic.

Remark 1. (a.) When the subjunctive would be necessary in the örātia directa, to denote liberty, power, etc., the same remains in the oratio obliqua, and is not changed into the infinitive with an accusar e; as, Ad hec Ariovistus respondit, quum vellet, congrederetur, To this Ariovist replied, that 'he might meet him when he pleased.' Cas. In the oratio directa, this would be congre diāris.

(b.) The imperative in the oratio directa is, in the oratio obliqua, changed into the subjunctive; as, hoc mihi dicite, which in the oratio obliqua is, hoc sibi dicant, or hoc sibi dicerent, according to the tense of the leading verb.

(c.) So also direct questions addressed to the second person, when changed from direct to indirect speech, become subjunctives. Liv. 6, 37—But such questions when not addressed to the second person are expressed in the bratho ablique by the accusative with the infinitive; as when in direct speech we say, Etiamsi větěris contămeliæ oblivisci vělim, num possum čtiam rěcentium injūriārum měměriam děponěre? The orātio obliqua will be, Cæsar respondit (histor. perf.) și vătăris contumelia oblivisci vellet, num etiam recentium injuriarum-memoriam deponere posse? Cass. Very rarely the accusative with the infinitive is found in a question of the second person, as in Liv. 6, 17: but the subjunctive in questions of the third person is less uncommon in Cæsar; as, Quis pati posset! for quem pati posse! Quis hoc sibi persuaderet? for quem sibi persuasurum? See \$ 273, 3.

Rem. 2. A writer may state his own past words or thoughts in oratio obliqua either preserving the first person, or adopting the third.

REM. 3. When the inserted clause contains the words or sentiments of the subject of the leading clause, all references to him are regularly expressed by the reflexives sui and suus; as, Ilac nocessitate conclus domino noiris qui sit aperit, multa politicens, si se conservasset. Nep. And this is equally true when the word to which the pronoun refers is not in reality the grammatical subject, provided it may still be conceived as such; as, Quam ei in suspicionem venisset, diquid in 'pistola de se esse scriptum. Nep.; for the words, quam ei in suspicionem venisset, are equivalent to quam suspiciorietur. See § 208, (1.)

Rem. 4 The tenses to be used in changing the ōrātio directa in o the obliqua, depend on the tense of the verb which introduces the quotation, according to the rule, § 258. But when the future perfect would be used in the direct, the pluperfect is necessary in the oblique form; but the perfect is used after the

present, perfect definite, or future.

REM. 5. When the connected clause contains merely a descriptive circumstance, or expresses what is independent of the sentiment of the preceding clause, it takes the indicative; as, Imperiaid Alexander Ligisppo, at eorum equitum, qui apud Granicum cecidierant, faceret statuas, Alexander ordered Lysippus to make statues of those horsemen who had fallen at the Granicus Sometimes, in other cases, when it is evident from the sense, that the connected clause is an essential part of the proposition, the indicative is used, to avoid giving the appearance of contingency to the sentence.

3. A clause connected to another by a relative or causal conjunction, takes the subjunctive, (whatever be the mood of the preceding verb.) when it contains not the sentiment or allegation of the writer, but that of some other person alluded to; as,

Sicrites accasitus est, quod corrumpèret jûventûtem, Socrates was accused of corrupting the youth, lit, because (as was alleged) he corrupted the youth. Benus invêcitiant, cujus ad solenne venissent, They invoked the god, to whose solemnities they had come. Liv. Quos viceris aninos tôti esse côte cérédus, Do not believe that those whom you have conquered are your friends. Here, it the first example, the charge of corrupting the youth is not made by the writer, but by the accusers of Socrates. So, in the second example, the worshippers allege that they have come to attend upon the solemnities of the god. In the last, it is implied by the use of the subjunctive mood, that the belief spoken of is that of the person addressed—quos vicisti would have been merely an addition of the speaker, by means of which he would have designated the persons whose friendship he was speaking of; and, in general, the indicative, in such sentences, is employed in those statements which are independent of the sentiments of the person, to whose thoughts or words allusion is made. Cf. supra, 2, R. 5.

REMARK. In the preceding cases, it is not directly said that the sentiments are those of another than the writer. In Cicero, however, the words deco, pairs arbitror, and the like, are often construed in a similar manner, although, properly speaking, not these verbs, but those in the clauses dependent on there should be in the subjunctive; as, Quame mina, Hannibilis permissu, existed de castris, rédit paulo post, quod se oblitum nescio quod diceret,...because (as) he said, he had forgotten something. Cic. Ab Althoniensibus, becam sépulture intra wrbem ut divent, impetrare non pôtui, quod réligione se impétir dicerent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

\$ 267. The imperative mood is used to express a command wish, advice, or exhortation; as,

Nosce te, Know thyself. Cic. Æquam memento servire mentem. Remembe to preserve an unruffled mind. Hor. Huc ides, Come hither. Virg. Pasce cd petial, et potum pastas sige, et inter acendum occursaire appro caveto. Id.

- (1.) The imperative present denotes that an action is to be performed direct by or at once; as, liges, read; morere, die; or that a state or condition is to continue; as, vire, live.
- (2.) The imperative future denotes that something is to be done, as soon as something else has taken place; as, Quum cidétidint two consilléries, tum consulto nacigation. Cie. Prius audite paucis; qued quum dixero, si placuéril, facitote. Ter. The precedent event is often to be supplied by the mind. Sometimes, espécially in poetry, the imperative present is used for the imperative future, and, on the other hand, scito and scitôte, from scio, are used instead of the imperative present; which is wanting.
- (3.) Hence the imperative future is properly used in contracts, laws, and wills; and also in precepts and rules of conduct; as, Rēgio impērio duo sunto, tique consides appellantor, milities summum jus hisbento, némim părento, illis salvis pôpidi supremu lex esto. Cic. Non saits est pulchra esse poémitit, dulcia sunto. Hor. 1 gnosetto sepe altéri, unuquam tibi. Syr.

Remark 1. With the imperative, not is expressed by $n\bar{e}$, and nor by $n\bar{e}ve$; as,

Ne tanti ănimis assuescite bella. Virg. Ne crēde colori. Id. Hominem mortuum in urbe ne sepelito, neve urito. Cic.

Nore. Non and nique occur, though rarely, with the imperative; as, Vos quique non căris aures obvirtăe lipilika, nec produte grâces insato vestibus auro. Ovid. But with the subjunctive used for the imperative non and especially nâgue are found more frequently. Cf. § 280, R. 6, (b.)—In Plautus and Terence ne is of common occurrence both with the imperative and with the present subjunctive, and with no difference of meaning; but later poets chiefly use ne with the present subjunctive, and ae with the imperative only when they speak emphatically. In classical prose writers the periphrastic nöll with the infinitive is preferred.

REM. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive are often used instead of both tenses of the imperative, to express a command in a milder form, an exhortation, or an entreaty; as, Qui ādīpisci vēran glöriam vālet, justītie fungātur officiis. Cic. Quod dābītas, ne fāceris. Plin. Ep. See § 260. II. R. 6. An imperative of the perfect passive is very rarely found; as, At vos admoniti mostris quoque cāsībus este. Ovid. Jacta alea esto. Cas. in Suct. But the subjunctive is more common; as, Jacta sit ālea. Sometimes also the future indicative; as, Sed vālebis, meāque nēgotia videbis, mēvue dīs jūcantībus ante brūmam exspectabis, instead of vāle, vide, exspecta. Cic. Ubi sententum mean vobis pērēgēro, tum quibus cādem plicēbunt, in dextram partem tāciti transibītis, instead of ransitōte. Liv. With the future the negative is non. See § 259, R. 1, (4.)

REM. 3. Sometimes, for the simple affirmative imperative, căra or cărăto ut, fac ut, or fuc alone is used with the subjunctive; as, Cura ut quam primum veinas, Come as soon as possible. Fac êrădius, Instruct, or Take care to instruct. Cic. For the negative imperative fac ne, căre ne or câve alone, with the present or perfect subjunctive is used; but especially nâtl with the infinitive; as, Nôti pâtâre, Do not suppose. Cic. Câve existmes, Do not think. It Nôtte id velle quod non fiêri pôtest, et câvete ne spe prasentis pâcis perpetuin pâcem ômittatis. Id.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

OF THE TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

§ 2568. 1. The infinitive partakes of the properties of the noun and verb, just as the participle combines the properties of the adjective and verb. It expresses simply the action or state implied in the verb in an abstract manver, without specifying either person, number, or time, and thus merely indicates whicher an action is in progress or completed.

2. The tenses of the infinitive denote respectively an action as present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verbs with which they are connected; as,

Hoc facere possum, I am able to do this. Cic. Vidi nostros intinicos cúpere bellum, I saw that our enemies were desiring war. Id. Nec geimere aerid cessabit turtur ab ulmo, Nor shall the turtle dove cease to coo from the lofty elm. Virg.—Victòrem rictæ succibnisse queror, I complain that the victor has yielded to the vanquished. Ovid. Se a soinbus andiese dicebant, They said that they had heard (it) from the old men. Cic. Audiet cives acuisse fervum giventus, I he youth will hear that the citizens have whetted the sword. Hor.—Negat sise verbum esse factūrum, He declares that he is not about to speak. Cic. Postquam audierat non datum iri filio uzōrem suo, After he had heard that a wite would not be given to his son. Ter. Semper existimābitis mhil hōrum ros visiros fore, You will always suppose that you are to see none of these things. Cic.

REVAIN 1. (a.) The present and perfect infinitives are sometimes called respectively the infinitives of incompleted and of completed action. The present infinitive, however, is sometimes used to denote a completed action. This is the usual construction with mémin; but in such case the speaker transfers himself to the past, and the expression denotes rather a recollection of the progress than of the completion of the action; as, thee me mémini diere, I remember the my saying this. Cic. Teucrum mémini Biodon venire, I remember Teucer's coming to Sidon. Virg. So with mémoirit êtneo. Cic. Phil. 8, 10. Scribit also is construed like méminit; as, Cic. Oli 3, 2: and after the same analogy, and for the sake of vivid expression Cicero says, M. Maximum accépimus fácile căire, tâcere, dissimulare, etc., though speaking of things which he had not witnessed himself. So, also, with récordor i—Récordor longe omnibus ūnum antérero Démosthèmen. Cic. When the action is spoken of simply as a fact, the perfect infinitive is used with mémini; as, Mêministis me ita distribuisse causam. Cic.

(b.) The passive voice having no simple form for expressing the completed state of suffering makes use of the combination of the perfect participle with esse; as, âmâtus esse, to have been loved. When thus combined esse loses its own signification of a continued state, and when this state is to be expressed, another infinitive must be chosen; as, Constrictant jam horum conscientăi têneri confarătăinem tuam non vides? Cic. Sometimes, however, when no ambiguity can arise, esse in the usual combination retains its original meaning; as, Apua Plătănem est, onnem môcem Lâcădemöniorum inflammatum esse căpidităte vincură. Id. Here inflammatum esse a continued or habitual state—Fuisse with the perfect participle denotes a state completeă previous to a certain past time; as, Jâbet bâm âmba esse; sopitum fuisse rețem săbilo iche. Liv.

REM. 2. To express the result of an action rather than its progress, the perfect infinitive is sometimes used instead of the present, especially after sitis hâbeo, sâtis nulhi est, piâtet, contentus sum, mellus érit, volo or a verb of equivalent meaning; as, Bacchâtur vâtes, magnum si pectore possit excussisse deum. Virg. Quam illum nêmo vêlit attigisse. Plin. The poets use the infinitive perfect where we should expect a present; as, Tendentes Pēlion impăsuisse Olympo. Hor.

REM. 3. The present infinitive is also sometimes used for the future, expected by the theoretic primary and the fatter of the golds will be changed. Virg. Progeniem Trejana a samptine duci audit at. 1d. Cras mila argentum dave divit, i. e. se datarum esse. Ter. Cato affirmats evivo illum non triumphire. Cic.

REM. 4. (a.) The infinitive future active is formed by a combination of the participle future active with esse; as, dmidtures esse; the infinitive future passive by a combination of the supine in um with iri; as, dmidtum iri. These future infinitives denote an action or state as continuing. The participle in rus which properly expresses intention (see § 162, 14), takes also the infinitive fusion is expressed a past intention; as, Scio to scriptirum fuisse, I know that

you have had the intention to write, whence it was an easy tra silion to the sense, 'you would have written,' in conditional sentences, when the condition is not fulfilled. This infinitive is used especially in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences, where in direct speech the pluperfect subjunctive would be used (cf. § 162, 14, R. 3.); as, Etiansi obtempersect auspicials, idem eventurum fuisse pūto. Cie. In like manner the infinitive future with esse is used in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences instead of the imperfect subjunctive; as, Libertus, nisi jurasste, seēlus se facturum (esse) arbitrobutur. Id.

(b.) Instead of the future infinitive, in both voices, futurum esse or fore, followed by ut and the subjunctive, is often used; the present and imperfect subjunctive, in such cases, denoting an unfinished, the perfect and pluperfect a finished, future action; as, Numquum pittivi fore, ut supplex ad te ventrem, I never supposed (that it would happen) that I should come a suppliant to you. Cie. Suspicor fore, ut infringatur hominum improbitas. Id. Oredebum fore, ut épistolam scripsises.—So, also, in the passive for a continued state of future suffering the present and imperfect are used; as, Oredebum seri-bâtur, and, Oredebum fore, ut épistola scriberetur. But to express a completed state in future time the perfect participle is employed; as, Quas spéro brêvi tempore treum copulatos fore. Cie. Quad ridiret nômine pácis bellum involutum fore. Id. This construction is necessarily used, when the verb has either no future active participle, or no supine: as, in such case, the regular future infinitive cannot be formed; as, Spéro fore ut sapins.—Fore is found in two passages pleonastically joined with the future participle active, viz. Te ad me fore venturum. Cie. Att. 5, 21: and Quum sénâtus censéret—libenter factiros fore. Li G. 42.

REM. 5. (a.) The periphrastic infinitive formed by the future active participle with fulse, denotes a future action contingent upon a condition which was not fulfilled; and, in the apodosis of a conditional sentence, corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive; as, An censes me tantos bibbres susceptūrum fuisse, si issuem funbus glbriam meam quibus vitam essem termināturas? Do you think that I should have undertaken so great labors if, etc. Cic. Ut perspicuous sit omnibus, visi tanta acerbitas injū-ics fuisset, numquam illos in eum form progressitors fuisse,....that they never would have come into that place. Id.

- (b.) Fătărum fuisse with ut and the imperfect subjunctive passive, corresponds to the infinitive fuisse with the future participle active in a conditional proposition; as, Xisi unacië essent allăti, czistinābant plērāque fătārum fuisse, ut oppīdum āmittērētur,...that the town would have been lost. Cæs.
- (c.) The participle future passive cannot be used to form an infinitive future passive, since it always retains the meaning of necessity, and in this sense has three regular infinitives, dinandam esse, dimandam fuisse, and dimandam fore; as, Instare hièmem, aut sub pellibus habendos milites fore, aut differendum esse in ustidem bellum. Liv.
- Rem. 6. In the apodosis of a conditional sentence, the perfect infinitive, like the past tenses of the indicative, (see § 259, R. 4.), sometimes corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive; as, (Dizit) shiv time fills suit advision fuisse, is likera ac philoca vireire licitum fuisset, (He said) that the life of his daughter had been dearer to him than his own, if it had been permitted... Liv. This use of the perfect infinitive is necessary, when the verb has no future participle; as, Equidem Plationem existino, si génus forense dicendi tractive voluisset. Pariosissime et copiosissime pottuise dictor,—would have been able to speak. Cic.
- § 269. The infinitive may be regarded either as a verb or as an abstract noun. (a.) As a verb it is used either indefinitely (§ 143, 4), or with a subject of its own, which is put in the accusative, (§ 239). But the infinitive possive of neuter and sometimes of active verbs, like the third person singular of that voice, may be used impersonally or without a sulject; as, Vides too properari hibre, You see a stir is made all along the shore. Virg. See § 209 R. 3, (2.), and 239, R. 4. The present infinitive has sometimes, in aarration, a subject in the nominative See § 209 R. 5.

(b.) As a noun, the infinitive, either alone or with a subject-accusative, has two cases, the nominative and the accusative, and is accordingly used either as the subject or the object of a verb.

THE INFINITIVE AS THE SUBJECT OF A VERB

The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the *subject* of a verb; as,

Ad rempüblicam pertinet me conservări, It concerus the state that I should be preserved. Cic. Nunquum est ătlle peccăre, To do wrong is never useful. Id. Mijus didicus est parta amittere quam omnino non părăvisse. Sall. In the first example conservări with its subject accusative me is the subject of pertinet, and is equivalent to 'my preservation': in the second, peccăre is the subject of est ătlle. See § 202, 2, and III. R. 2.

REMAIK 1. A general truth may be expressed by the infinitive without a subject; as, Facinus est vincire circen Römönum, To bind a Roman citizen, or, that one should bind a Roman citizen, is a crime. But in such case the verb esse and verbs denoting to appear, to be considered or called (§ 210, R. 3.), require the noun or adjective of the predicate to agree with the implied subject in the accusative; as, £quum est peccatis vinum poscentem reldère rursus. Hor. Attieus maximum astimacity question, microrem gratumque cognosci. Nep.

Note. The indefinite pronoun aliquem or aliques may in such cases be supplied, and the same indefiniteness may be expressed by te or ms, cf. § 209, R. 7; but it is still more frequently expressed by the infinitive passive. Hence the sentence Factams as vincire circum Romanum, may also be expressed by Factams set vinciri circum Romanum. So, Quam tulfrent de cornen virtule non desperari. Nep.—The impersonal verbs beet, decet, dyportet, dypus est, and nocesse est, when there is no definite subject, are joined with the infinitive active alone; but when there is a subject-accusative, they are connected with the passive construction; as, a ct. Rect hoc facers; docet specimen capic except have re; pass. Rect hoc fiber; devet specimen capi.

REM. 2. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, is often the subject of a proposition, when the substantive verb with a noun, a neuter adjective, or an impersonal verb forms the predicate. Of this kind are justum, verisimile, consentaneum, opertum—est, évat, etc., nêcesse est, ôpus est paparet, consulat, coneint, décet, lect, ôportet; intelligitur, perspicitur, etc.; as, Cui verba dire difficile est. Ter. Mendacem memorem orse ôportet. Quint. Legem brévem esse ôportet. Sen. Consular profecto ad salidev cirium inventus esse leges. Cic. Non ênim me hoc jam dicêre pâd-bût. ld. See § 209, R. 3, (5.), (a.)

Rem. 3. The infinitive may itself be the subject of an infinitive; as, Audio non licere cuiquam in nave capillos deponère. Ter.

REM. 4. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may also be the predicate nominative; as, *Impāme qualibēt facēre id est regem* esse. Sall. In this sentence *fācēre* is the subject, and *rēgem esse* is the predicate; tor *id*, which only represents by a kind of apposition the clause *impāme qualibet fācēre*; can be omitted.

REM. 5. When the infinitive case, (or others of similar meaning, as, fièri, cirire, vitum deyêre, cedêre, dière, etc.), with a predicate adjective (or noun), is joined with facet, such predicate is put in the accusative, if the subject-accusative of the infinitive is expressed, and sometimes, also, when it is omitted, but more frequently, in the latter case, the predicate adjective or noun is attracted to the dative following licet; as, Ut can licebit. Cic. Si civ Romano bect was Gadifaman. Id.—Licuit chim case office Themstock. Id. Miki negligenti cos non licebit of the dative following licet is una carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, is libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fulses, si libera ac publicar is no non licet in the carrier fully sibility ac publicar is no non licet in the carrier fully sibility ac publicar is no non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filies vait carrier fully sibility ac publicar is non licet.

dative. Vibis nècesse est fortibus viris esse. Liv.—But licet, oportei, and nècesse est are also joined with the subjunctive mood, and hence is derived the construction of licet as a conjunction. See § 263, 2

THE INFINITIVE AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB.

§ 270. The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the *object* of a verb; as,

Here vitare capinus, We desire to avoid this. Cic. Poëtas omnino non conor attingère, I do not at all attempt to read the poets. Id. Sententiam vălēre capierunt, They desired that the opinion should prevail. Id. Spēro te vălēre, I hope that you are well. Id.

Nors. The infinitive as the object of a verb supplies the place of the accusative of the thing, and hence many active verbs besides the infinitive take in the active voice an accusative of the person, cf. § 231, R. 3, (b.), and in the passive retain the infinitive; as, Consules jubentur scribere exercitum. Mūros adire vētiti sunt. Cf. § 234, I.

REMARK 1. The infinitive alone may also depend upon an adjective, and sometimes upon a noun.

(a) It may depend upon relative adjectives, (see § 213, R. 1), which, by the poets, are joined with the infinitive instead of their usual construction with the genitive of the gerund, etc.; as, Cédère nescius. Hor. Avidi committee pugnam. Ovid. Chipidus movivi. Id. Cantare périti Arcides. Virg. Callidus condere farto. Hor. Quidible timpotens spérâre. Id. Satrimas ficère inscius. Varr. Insuctus vêra audire. Liv. Certa movi. Virg. Félicior unguère téla. Virg. So, Audax omnia perpérit, Resolute to endure every thing. Hor. Sollers ornaire Cýpassis, Skilful to adorn. Ovid. Segnes solvère nodum. Hor. Indicellis paupériem páti. Id. Non lenis futa récladére. Id. See § 213, R. 4, (1).

(b.) It may also depend upon adjectives signifying usefulness, fitness, etc., which are sometimes by the poets construed with the infinitive instead of the dative; as, (Tibin) aspirare et ādesse chōris ērat ātilis. Hor. Ætos mollis et apta rēgi. Ovid. Fons ētium rivo dāre nōmen idōneus. Hor. Frāges consūmēre nāti. Id. And after dipaus and contentus; as, Dignus amāri. Virg. Cf. § 244,

R. 2, (b.)

(c.) Upon a noun; as, Tempus est hūjus libri fácère finem, It is time to finish this book. Nep. Init consilia règes tollère, He devised a plan to destroy the kings. Id. Eu èrat confessio căput vêrum Rămum esse. Liv. Căpīdo inceserat Æthiôpiam invisère. Curt. Quibus în ôtio vivère copia êrat. Sall. So, Nec mihi suut vires înimicos pellère tectis, instead of pellendis înimicis, or ad pellendis inimicos. Ovid.

(d.) If for the infinitives depending on nouns or adjectives other nouns were substituted, these last would be put in the genitive, dative, or ablative; and hence such infinitives may perhaps be properly regarded as exceptions to the rule, that the infinitive has but two cases, the nominative and the accusative.

REM. 2. (a.) The infinitive with the accusative sometimes stands unconnected, especially in exchanations and indignant interrogations, where cridbile est? or virunne est? may be supplied; as, Mēne incepto dēsistère victom? That I, vanquished, should desist from my undertaking? Virg. Me mistrum? It at tantos œvumaos propter me incidisse! Cic.—But ul, also, with the subjunctive, either with or without an interrogative particle, may be used to express a question with indignation; as, Fine (seil. patri) égo ut adverser? Liv. Tu cut unequam te corrigas? Cic. Jadicio ut árátor dēcāmānum persēquātur? Id.; where fēir pôtest? may be supplied.

(b.) So, in the ôrâtio obliqua, the words signifying said, saying, etc., are often omitted, or implied in a preceding vert or phrase; as, id fielle effici posses, soil ducit. Nep. Quem signum daturum fuqientibus? Our.

REM. 3. The infinitive is sometimes to be supplied; and esse and fuisse with a predicate adjective, and also in the compound forms of the infinitive, both active and passive, are commonly omitted, especially after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, and perceiving; as, Vos cognôvi fortes. Sall. Quem publism memorate. The.—So, also, with the infinitive perfect passive when depending on rôlo, nôbe, câpio, and ôportet: as, Adôlescent môrem gestum ôportuit. Ter. Qued from pridem factum ôportuit. Cic.—Sometimes in a relative clause an infinitive is to be supplied from the finite verb of the main proposition; as, Ques vôluit omnes interfect, scil. interficère. Ne illum quidem consèquantur, quem patant, gridium; i. e. quem se consécutivos pitant. Cic.

THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

- \$ 271. The infinitive, without a subject-accusative, is used after verbs denoting ability, obligation, intention or endeavor; after verbs signifying to begin, continue, cease, abstain, dare, fear, hesitate, or be wont; and after the passive of verbs of saying, believing, reckning, etc.
- Note 1. To these classes belong possum, queo, nequeo, valeo, debeo; ciro, caglio, defeno, statuo, constituo, pari conar, nitor, tendo, contendo, tento, mátiro, projeto, aggredior, perse ero, -copi, incípio, perzo, desino, desisto, intermito, parco, recisos; sideo, assureso, consueso, insuseo; audeo, evero, metuo. Feformido, timeo, horreo, dibito:—audior, credor, existimor, feror, negor, nuntior, perhibror, pidor, trador, pibror, triedor, and cogor.
- Note 2. When the preceding verbs are joined with esse, hābēri, jūdīcāri, vīdīcīi, etc., the predicate noun or adjective is put in the nominative; as, Sölet tristis vīdīcīi; aude sāpiens esse; capit mībi molestus esse; dēbes esse dīlīgens; potest liber esse: and so also mērētur, scit, dīdīcīt liber esse: and so also mērētur, scit, dīdīcīt liber esse.
- Note 3. The poets, in imitation of the Greeks, use the infinitive after fuge, unfer, circe, parce, mêmento; pareo, réfugio, quero, urgeo, labôro, amo, gaudeo, firo, culleo, sâmo, mitto, rémitto, pattor, jaro, conjuro, pagno, mâus, and some other verbs, especially to denote a wisk or purpose; as, Introiti vidére. Ter. Non te frangère perséquor. Hor. Non pôpilare pénates cévainus. Virg. In this construction, the poets are sometimes imitated by the later prose writers.
- REMARK 1. Many of the verbs above enumerated, instead of the infinitive, may be followed by the subjunctive with ut, ne, etc.; and with some of them this is the regular construction; as, Sententian ne dicerc, récasoir. Cic.
- REM. 2. The passives dicor, trādor, feror, narror, rēpērior, existimor, rideor, etc., may either be used personally, with the infinitive alone, or impersonally followed by the accusative with the infinitive. Thus we may say, Maler Pausiniae et tempôre vixisse dicitur, or, Dicitur ev tempôre matrem Pausiniae vixisse, the mother of Pausanias said to have been living...or, it is said that the mother of Pausanias was living... Nep. The former construction is more common especially with videor, see § 272, R. 6; but the latter is frequent with naudidur, and very common with the compound tenses, trādium est, problium est, etc., and with the participle future passive; as, crēdendum est, etc., as, Quōrum minnen tile m fusse crēdendum, etc. Cic.
- REM. 3. The infinitive without a subject is used after a verb, only when it denotes an action or state of the subject of that verb.
- REM. 4. The verbs to wish or desire, vilo, nolo, malo: cipio, opto, stideo, have a twofold construction:—the infinitive without a subject-accusative is used after them, when the subject remains the same; and when followed by esse, haberi, etc., the predicate-noun or adjective is in the nominative;—but the accusative with the infinitive is used when the subject is changed, or when a reflexive pronoun of the same person follows. We say, therefore, rôlo êrădītus fiêri, and on the other hand, vôlo te êrădītus fiêri, and vôlo me erradītum fiêri.

 So, V'slo is esse, quem tu me esse voluist. Cic. Cupio me esse clémentem, cipio—

me non dissolūtum vidēri. Id.; or, omitting the pronoun, cūpic esse clēmens noc dissolūtus vidēri.—Omnis homines qui sese stūdent præstāre cētēris āntmālībus, etc. Sall.

Norm 4. Vilo is used with the present infinitive passive; as, Me āmāri vilo, I wish to be beloved; hoc vēlim intelligi, I wish this to be understood; and also with the infinitive perfect passive to denote the enger desire that something should be instantly accomplished; as, Light quod evant appellati siperbins, Corinham petres vestri—exstinctum esse võluterunt. Cic.; but it occurs most frequently with the omission of esse; as, hoc factum vilo; nunc illos commonitos vēlim; so, patriam exstinctum cūni.

Note 5. The nominative with the infinitive after verbs of saying, perceiving, etc. (§ 272), is rare even in poetry, and is an imitation of the Greek idiom, which requires the nominative with the infinitive when the same subject remains; as, Phásilus ille, quem ridétis, bospites, ait fuisse nárium celerrimus. Catull. Quin rétailt 4jaz esse Jávis népos, instead of se esse Jávis népôteu Ovid. Senát médos delapsus in hostes, instead of se délapsum esse. Virg.

THE INFINITIVE WITH A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 272. The infinitive with a subject-accusative follows verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like; as,

Vidēbat, id non posse fièri, He saw that that could not be done. Nep. Sentit ânmus, se sua vi, non olivină, môvriz. Cie. Audivi te cenire. Me in ojus pôtes-tâte dixi fôve. Id. Affirmant multum jacère ânimos. Liv. Sepe vênit ad aures meas, te istud nimis crébro dicère. Cie. Eam pugnam ad Pérusiam pugnâtum (esse), quâdum auctores sunt. Liv.

Nore 1. This rule includes all such verbs and phrases as denote the exercise of the external senses and intellectual faculties, or the communication of thought to others; as, andio, whice, sentio, dammadeveto, cognosco, intelligo, percipio, disco, seio, nexio, censo, spico, despeto, cógito, fidico, credio, arbitror, pitto, spinor, disco, statuo, memini, vicondro, obliviscor, apinio est, spice est, etc.;—dico, trado, probo, scribo, reféro, norro, numio, confirmo, nego, ostendo, indico, dosco, certicem facio, demonstro, pérnitro, pramitto, politico, spondro, etc.; but with most of these a different construction often occurs. See § 273

Nors 2. The propositions, whose subjects are thus put in the accusative and their verbs in the infinitive, are those which are directly dependent on the verbs of saying and perceiving. Respecting the clauses inserted in such dependent propositions, see 4.296, 1.

Note 3. (a.) When a relative clause inserted in a proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, has the same verb as the proposition in which it is inserted, but such verb is not repeated, the noun which is the subject of the relative clause is also put by attraction in the accusative; as, Te suspicor eisten richus, quibus me ipsum, commôciri. If the verb is expressed we must say, eisdem richus commôciri, quibus (ego) ipse commôveor. So, also, in inserted relative clauses where the verb, if expressed, would be in the subjunctive, (see § 266, 2.); as, (Verres) aichat se tantidem astimasse, quanti Sacerdotem, for quanti Sicerdos astimasset. Cic. Conflictus e in cā parte fuisse quā te, quā virum onni luade dignam patrem tuam. Id.

(b.) The same is the case with the particle quam after a comparative, see § 256, R. 5, (a.) But sometimes when quam connects a clause to a preceding proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, the same construction follows that precedes quam, even when the verb of the latter clause is expressed; as, Nonne libi affirmaci quidris me pôtius perpessărum, quam ex Itâliă ad bellum civile me exittrum; instead of quam exirem or quam ut exirem. Cic.

(c.) In long speeches in the \(\tilde{o}\)ratio obliqua, relative clauses, having a verb of their own which should properly be in the subjunctive, are put in the accusa ive with the infinitive, if the relative clause is not subordinate to the one with the infinitive, and which is governed by a verb of saying or perceiving.

out is rather coordinate with it; in which case the relative is equivalent to the demonstrative with et; as, Nam illörum urbem ut pröpugnäcium oppostum eseb barbāris, āpad quam jam bis classes rēgias fēcisse naufrāgium; for et āpad esem jam bis, etc.—In Livy and Tacitus the same construction sometimes occurs even after onijunctions; as after quam in the sense of 'while,'see § 263, 5, 18, 3; after quamquam on account of its absolute signification, see § 198, 4, and after quia.

NOTE 4. The personal pronouns, which, with the other moods, are expressed only when they are emphatic, must be always expressed in the accusative with the infinitive. The verbs 'to promise' and 'to hope' are in English usually joined with the infinitive present without a pronoun, but in Latin not only is the pronoun expressed, but the infinitive which follows is in the future; as, 'the promised to come,' is in Latin, Prômisit se venturum (sell. esse, see § 270, R. 3). But the infinitive present sometimes occurs after these verbs; as, Policenter obsides dure, Cass. B. G. 4, 21; and the pronoun is occasionally omitted, see § 259, R. 2 and 3.

REMAIN I. When ambiguity would arise from the subject and the object of the verb being both in the accessive, the passive infinitive is substituted for the active, by which means the subject is put in the ablative, or in the accusative with per; as, Ne fundo quidem auditum est, crécôdilum violatum esse ab Ægyptin; instead of Ægyptinn crécôdilum violasse. Cie.

REM. 2. After verbs of saving, thinking, etc., the conjunction that is omitted in translating from English into Latin, and the subject of the dependent clause is put in the accusative, and its verb in the infinitive.

REM. 3. The accusative with the infinitive is sometimes rendered into English by a similar form; as, Si ris me flere. If you wish me to weep. Hor; but the dependent clause is more frequently connected to the verb of saying, etc., by the conjunction that, and the infinitive translated by the indicative or potential mood; as, Sentimus nivem esse albam, We perceive that snow is white. Cic. Sometimes the dependent clause is annexed to the other without the conjunction; as, Crebants as neglect. Ter.

REM. 4. A present infinitive corresponds to the imperfect indicative, when with an accusative it follows a preterite tense; as, Dixit Cesivern venire, He said that Cæsar vos coming. Cæs. In like manner the perfect infinitive with an accusative after a preterite tense corresponds to the phyperfect indicative; as, Dixit Cesivern venisse, He said that Cæsar had come. See § 268, 2.

Rem. 5. The present infinitive, after verbs of sense, is often equivalent to the present participle; as, Surgère videt linam, He sees the moon (to rise) rising. Virg. Arma ritiliare vident. Id. Virbis collièrer faces. Id. Nec Ziphjivos audis spirire? Do you not hear the zephyrs blowing? Id. Supe hoc majores natu dicère audivi. Cic. The two constructions are sometimes united; as, Médium video discodère calum, pallantesque polo stellus. Virg.

REM. 3 The subject-accusative after verbs of suying, showing, and believing; as, dico, neigo, trádo, fêro, mêmôro, nurro, nunto, pérhibeo, prodo, scribo, demonstro, estendo, arquo, credo, pulo, existimo, and the like, and also after jábeo, verb, and probibeo, is regarded also as the accusative of the object after these verbs; and hence such verbs are used also in the passive. This is especially the case when their subject is indefinite; as, Dicant (they or people say) me virum próbum esse, or dicor vir probus esse. So, Vetimur hoc fáteire, instead of, Nos hoc fáteire vétant. Instead also of the impersonal vidétur (it appears) followed by the infinitive with its subject-accusative, it is common to say personally, videor, videris, etc., with the infinitive; as, videor errasse, it appears that I have erred.



INFINITIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES.

- § 273. When the particle that, in English, introduces a clause denoting a purpose, object, or result, it is a sign of the subjunctive in Latin, and is to be expressed by ut, etc.; but otherwise it is usually the sign of the accusative with the infinitive. Cf. §§ 262 and 272.
- (a.) Verbs of endeavoring and resolving take after them the infinitive and more rarely the subjunctive, when the subject remains the same; but when the subject is changed, they take the subjunctive only.

Note I. Such are stâtuo, constituo, decerno, tento, laboro, paro, meditor, caro, mitor, contendo, consilium capio, automum or in antimum induco. Ct. § 271, N. J. After operan do. I exert myself, id. hoe, or illud ago, I endeavor, nibil antiquius habo or duco quam, nothing is of more importance to me, and video for caro, the subjunctive is almost exclusively used.

(b.) Verbs of effecting are construed with ut or ne and the subjunctive.

Note 2. Such are făcio, efficio, perficio, ēvinco, pervinco, impetro, assequor, consequor, etc. But făcre 'to effect' occurs in Cle. Brut. 38, in connection with the accusative and infinitive passive.

- Nore 3. Facio with ut is also used as a periphrasis for the indicative; as, furitus quidem feci, ut L. Fläminium e sénatu éjtéérem, for invitus éjéci. Cie.—Fac, 'suppose' or 'granting,' and éftére,' to prove,' take the accusative with the infinitive; but the passive efficitur, 'it follows,' takes also the subjunctive.—Facère, 'to introduce' or 'represent,' is joined with a present or perfect participle; as, Ledium et Scipiènem facimus admirantes. Cie. In the passive the accusative also with the infinitive is found, there being no present participle; as, Isocratem Plato landari facit a Socrate. Cie.
- 2. Verbs signifying to request, to demand, to admonish, to advise, to encourage, to command, and the like, both when the subject remains the same and when it is changed, are followed by the subjunctive with ut or ne, and only rarely by the infinitive.
- Note 4. (a.) Such are röge, öre, pricor, pilo; posco, postilo, flagito; moneo, admöveo, commöneo, hortor, cihertor, echortor, suddeo, presuddeo, instituo, (I instruct) impello, cogo, mando, prescribo, ĉeico, decerno, legem do, censeo, perpello, excito, incito, impero, etc.; as, Te non hortor solum, sed ĉiam oro, ut tota mente in rempublicam incumbas. Cir
- (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the infinitive more frequently follows those verbs without any difference of meaning. The poets even use the infinitive to express a purpose; as, Prôteus pêcus êgit altos visêre montes. Hor.
- (c.) Nuntio, scribo, mitto, and even dico, are followed by the subjunctive, when they imply an injunction or intention that something should be done; as, Hee at facins, scribo. Cic.
- (d.) Jibbo and rēto commonly take the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive with or rarely without ut. Sometimes, with the infinitive, the person to whom the command is given is omitted, especially when it is either obvious from the nature of the command or indefinite; as, Castra māmre jābet, scil. māttes. Cas. Lex recte fācēre jūbet, scil. hōmīnes. Cic. With the subjunctive the dative of the person sometimes follows jūbeo; as, Britemico jussit, ersurgēret. Tac.—Impēro is sometimes followed by the accusative with the infinitive passive; and so also is censeo, I vote, or, I ordain. The latter is often construed with the participle in dus with esse expressed cf understood; as, Carthaginen delendam censeo.

- (e.) Moneo and admoneo, 'I remind,' and persuadeo, 'I convince take the accusative with the infinitive.
- (a.) In the oratio obliqua, the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, is exchanged for that of the subjunctive, to denote possibility, liberty, duty, etc.; as,

Virginius unum Ap. Claudium legum expertem esse aiebat: respicerent tribunal homines castellum omnium scelerum. Liv.

- (b.) On the contrary, when the subjunctive has been used after a verb of requesting, commanding, etc., the construction often passes into that of the accusative with the infinitive; the verb of saying being considered as implied in the verb of requesting, etc., as, Oribut ne se ut parricidum libérium aversalentur: sib vitam filice sua carrièrem fuisse, si.m. Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 2, (b.)
- (a.) Verbs which denote willingness, unwillingness, permission, and necessity, commonly take the infinitive, or the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive.

Note 5. Such are võlo, nõlo, mālo, opto, permitto, pātior, sīno, concēdo, līcet, prōhtbeo, ōportet, and nēcesse est. Cf. § 271, R. 4. Võlo ut is used to express a strong emphasis. Nõlo is not construed with the subjunctive.

- (b.) An infinitive passive without a subject is sometimes used with oportet; as, Non oportuit relictus, seil. esse ancillas. Ter. Ut ut erat, mansum times oportuit, seil. esse. Id. Non p\u00e4tabant de t\u00e4li viro suspici\u00f3nibus \u00f3portere j\u00fadic\u00e4ri. Nep.
- (c.) Some other verbs which regularly take the accusative with the infinitive after them, are occasionally followed by the subjunctive.
- 5. Quod, 'that,' commonly with the indicative, introduces a substantive clause containing the explanation or ground of the predicate or of some other word in the principal clause.

REMARK. The subjunctive follows quod in those cases only in which the clause expresses the view or sentiment of some other person than the writer or speaker, Ct. § 266, 3.

Quod is used:—

- (1.) After such expressions as bêne, mâle, prûdenter fâcio; bêne, mâle fit; êvênt, accidit, and the like; prætéreo, mitto; and generally adde, accédit, etc.; as, Bêne fâcis, quod me adjâvas.
- (2.) To introduce the explanation of a noun, pronoun, or pronominal adverb in the principal clause; as, Magnum beneficium est natūrus, quod nēcesse est mūri.
- (3.) After verbs signifying an affection of the mind, and the outward expression of such feeling; and also after verbs of praising, censuring, accusing, and thanking.
- Nors 6. Such are gaudeo, delector, grätum, or jacundum est mihi, ango, döllee, egre, mit ste, or grättler före, succensso, paniette, miror, admiror, glörior, grätilor, grätilor, grätilor, grätilor, grätilor sepe querebatur, quod omnibus in ribus hörnines diligentiöres essent, ut, etc. Cic. Gaudeo quod te interpellavi. Id. Quod spirätis, quod võerm mittitis, quod formas hömnum habeits, interpellavi. Id. Quod spiratis, quod võerm mittitis, quod formas hömnum habeits, interpellavi. Id. Väto mirari se alebat, quod non rideret häruspex, häruspitem quum videret. Cic.
- Note 7. After those verbs which express the feeling of jov, grief, etc.; as, gaudeo, dôleo, miror, the accusative with the infinitive is more commonly found, but those which denote the outward expression of such feeling are more commonly construed with quod; but sometimes this distinction is reversed Grätillor is commonly joined with quod.

- Note 8. A purely objective proposition is expressed by quod only when it depends upon addo, (generally in the imperative adde), or upon facio joined with an adverb; as, Adde quod pubes tibi crescit omnes. Hor. Adde huc quod mercem sine fucis gestat. Id. Fecit humaniter Licinius, quod ad me vesperi venit. Cic. In all other cases the infinitive is employed in purely objective propositions.
- By the infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, a proposition is 6. expressed as a thought, so that it resembles an abstract noun; by quoa, with expressen as a mongat, so that it resembles an abstract noun; by quot, with the indicative or the subjunctive, it is represented simply as a fuct. To the latter is frequently joined hoc, id, illud, istud, or huc, etc.; as. Illud quòque mbis accódic incommòdium, quot M. Janius abest. Cic. Huc accódic ha, quod, etc. Sall. Quod generally refers to past time, and hence it is preferable to say, Gràdissimum mihi est, quot ad me tua mànu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Gràdissicum with the high cribinal properties. mum mihi est te bene vălere.
- (a.) Quod, with the indicative, in the sense of as to, or with regard to, is used at the beginning of a sentence, especially in letters, in repeating an expression of a person for the purpose of answering it; as, Quod autem me Agamemnonem œmūlāri pūtas, fallēris. Nep. Quod scrībis te velle scīre, qui sit reipūblicæ status. summa dissensio est. Cic. Sentences thus introduced by quod are in no grammatical connection with the verb that follows them. See § 206, (14.)
- (b.) Quod is used in explanatory or periphrastic propositions which refer to a preceding demostrative pronoun, as hoc, id, etc., unless such pronoun be added pleonastically, in the nominative or accusative, to verbs governing the accusative with the infinitive; as, Mihi quidem videntur homines hac re maxime elluis præstare, quod loqui possunt. Cic.
- Note 9. The construction of the infinitive resembles, in the following particulars, that of a noun in the singular number and neuter render:-
- (a.) Like a noun, it may have an adjective or pronoun agreeing with it; as Tôtum học philosophāri displicet. Cic. Quum vivere ipsum turpe sit nöbis. Id. Me học ipsum nihil agère delectat. Id. Meum intelligere nulla pecunia vendo. Petr. See § 205, R. 8.

(b.) It may be followed by a limiting genitive; as, Cūjus non dīmicāre fuit

vincere. Val. Max.

(c.) It may be either the subject or object of a verb. See §§ 209, R. 3, (5,) and 229, R. 5. It may also be used after neuter verbs, like an accusative, cepending on a preposition understood; as, Te accepisse meas literas gaudeo. fer. See §§ 232, (2,) and 273, 5.

(d.) It is also used like a predicate-nominative; as, Videre est perspicere

aliquid. Cic. See § 210.

(e.) It may, like a genitive, limit the signification of an adjective or noun.

See § 270, R. 1.

(f.) It may, like an accusative, depend on a preposition; as, Aristo et Pyrrho inter optime valère et gravissime ægrötare, nihil prorsus dicebant interesse. Cic. Quod crimen dicis præter amasse meum? Ovid. Inveniet nil sibi legatum, præter plorare. Hor.

(g.) It is used also like an ablative; as, Audito regem in Siciliam tendere. Sall.

(h.) Sometimes, also, especially in the poets, it denotes a purpose, like a participle in dus, (see § 274, R. 7.); as, Loricam donat habere viro. Virg.; or like a dative of the end, (see § 227.)

PARTICIPLES.

§ 274. 1. Participles are followed by the same cases and constructions as their verbs; as,

Quidam, poëta nominātus, A certain one, called a poet. Cie. Că 'alforu n oblito leana, The lioness forgetfu of her whelps. Virg. Fairenter rebus Carduştinien sium, Favoring the interests of the Carthaginians. Liv. Teudens ca sideru palmas. Virg. Accessitus rei căpitălis. Cie. Primă dicte mili summă dicende Cămănă. Hor. Omina doctus. Stat. Căsus âbies risăra matrinos. Id. Cărtiări arbore montes. Ovid. Parcendum est teneris. Juv. Theadum est actăte. Ovid. L. Brătus arcens reditu tyrannum, în profilo concidii. Cie.

The present, perfect, and future active participles, denote respectively an action which is present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verb with which they are connected; as,

Simul hoc dicens attollit se. Virg. Tam ad Thruseam in hortis ägentem missus est. Tac. Turnum fügientem hoc terra videbit? Virg. Qui missus ob Arquis Italà considérat urbe. Id. L'unia minere additatis perfunctus, pétit praviura. Cic. Jussus cum fide paraes luam. Hor. Jüvenis médios móritūrus in hostes irruit. Virg. Peritūrus injēcit sise in agmen. Id. Illa tibi ventūra bella expedite. Id.

Note. The participle expresses the action or state of the verb, and also marks its complete or incomplete state or condition. Cf. § 144, 1-3. Except, however, in deponent verbs, the Latin language has no active participle do-noting a completed action, equivalent to the English 'having written,' nor any passive participle denoting a state of suffering still going on, equivalent to the English present participle 'being loved.'

REMARK 1. The present participle, particularly that of the verb \$\epsilon\$, sometimes denotes that which is about to be done; as, Interclisit hiems, et terruit Auster cuntes, as they were on the point of going. Virg. Nec nos via fullit cuntes. Id.

Ren. 2. (a.) The present participle, also, sometimes denotes a purpose; as, bant, ōrantes véniam,....to sue for favor.... Virg. Eurépylum scitantem örácidle Phebi mittimus. Id. (b.) It is also used to expresa a state or condition, where, in English, a substantive is employed with a preposition; as, janôrans, from ignorance; métuens, from fear; consultium pétens, in his suit for the consulship; omne mollem nascens facile opprimitur,—in its origin.

REM. 3.*(a.) The perfect participle passive, especially in the poets, often denotes the result of a past action, and thus supplies the place of a present participle passive; as, Notus evolat piceā tectus caligine...covered with pitchy darkness. Ovid. Cf. Virg. En. 1, 480; 2, 277; 4, 72, 589; 5, 113, 708; 6, 383; Georg, 1, 204. It is often to be translated by a present active participle, as, Minus pectus percussa décorum, flaventesque abscissa comas, i. e. percutueus, abscindens. Virg. Tunsas pectora palanis. Id. So, also, solitus, anuss, fisus, and the perfect participles of deponent verbs; as, Longum contu solita biborem. Id. Voc auditur fractos sointus imitata bibarum. Id. Dictiliavas Gesirem complexus, obscorare capit. Cas. Concretos sanguine crines gêrens. Virg. Tonsis in ral-kibas, i. e. que tondentur. Id.

(b.) The perfect participle of a preceding verb is often used in a succeeding clause, to express the completion of an action; as, Exercitum fundit fugutque,

fusum persequitur. Liv. This idiom frequently occurs in Ovid.

REM. 4. Hibbeo, with perfect participles denoting knowledge and determination; as, cognitum, perspectum, perspectum, comprihensum, exploratum, stritum, constitutium, dibbératum, perswisum mihi hibbeo, etc., forms a periphrusis, like the passive verb in English, and equivalent to cognion, perspect, percipi, etc., instead of the verb of the participle; as, Clotii admum perspectum or cognitum hibbeo; for perspect, etc., I perceive, know. rersudisum mihi hibbeo and persudissimum hibbeo are used only in the neutre gender and with an accusative with the infinitive in the sense of mihi persudisi or persudisum mihi test. When hibbeo with any other participle than those above indicated is used, it expresses more than the ordinary perfect active; as, Quod me horbiris ut obsolvem; hibbeo ab-albitam sular épos ad Casirem; i.e. I have it ready. Cic. Do, reddo, caro,

těneo, possideo, and missum făcio, are sometimes so construed with participles as, Missam iram făciet, for mittet. Ter. Hostes victos dăre, for vincêre. Sall.

- Rem. 5. (a.) The passive participles may supply the place of a verbal noun in 50 or us, the perfect being employed to represent an action as completed, and the future when it is conceived as still incomplete; as, Ante Rôman conditam, Before the building of Rome. Cic. Consilia with sidende, Plans for the destruction of the city. Id. See § 275, II. With the limitations about to be made in regard to the nominative, this construction is used in all the cases, and even when they are governed by the prepositions, ad, and, eb, propeter; do and ex; as, He litere recitate magnum luctum frecrunt, The reading of this letter. Liv. Türentum captum, The taking of Tarentum. Ob recept in Hamibalem, On account of the reception of Hamibal. Sibi quisque cast region explicited dicus. The glory of killing, or, of having killed the king. Propter Africam domitam. Eutrop. Ante Prominendum natum. Nep. Post Christian natum. Ab condita arbe ad libératum. Liv. The oblique cases only of participes in das are used in this manner as the nominative denotes necessity, (see Rem. 8,) and even the perfect participle is not thus used in the nominative by Cicero.
- (b.) The neuter of the perfect passive participle without a noun is used by Livy, as the subject of a proposition; as, Tentatum per dictationen, ut ambo patricii consules crearentur, rem ad interregnum perduzit: i. e. the attempt, or the fact of the attempt being made by the dictator. Compare a similar use of this participle in the ablative, § 257, R. 9, (1.) (c.)
- (c.) The English 'without' with a verbal substantive; as, 'without writing, without having waited,' etc., is expressed in Latin by means of a negative noun, adjective or particle connected with a participle; as, Cosar correctam numquam per instition tituder dusti, this perspecialist beform situs, without having examined the localities. This form occurs often with the ablative absolute; as, Alheinenses non exspectato auxilio adversus ingentem Persärum exercitum in prelium epichiantur, without waiting for assistance. So, nulla prestituită die, Without fixing any time. Cic. Misérum est nihil perficientem anni. 1d.
- Rem. 6. (a.) The participle in rus, especially with verbs of motion, ofter denotes intention or purpose; as, Ad Jõvem Aumönem pergit consultrus de brighte sud, He goes to Jupiter Ammon, to consult respecting his origin. Just.
- (b.) It is also used where in English a chause connected by since, when, although, etc., is employed; as, Plāru lòcūtūros abūre nos jussit, When or although we intended to say more. Herculem Germāni, tāri in prollum comunt. Tac. Hence it is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, to express the inference from a hypothetical proposition; as, Expéditur castris Romānus, vallum invāsūrus, ni cipia pugnas fièret. And with the repetition of the preceding verb; as, Dedit mihi quantum maxime pôtuit, datūrus amplius, si pôtuisset, i. e. ac dedisset amplius. Plin. Ep.
- Rem. 7. (a.) The participle in dus, also, denotes a purpose passively, when joined with verbs signifying to give, to deliver, to agree for, to have, to receive to undertake, etc. Such are do, trado, tribuo, attribuo, munto, mitto, permitto concido, redimo, conditco, lóco, hábeo, accipio, suscipio, rélimquo, cirro, diposco régo; as, Testâmentum tibi tradit l'egendum, He delivers his will to you to real. How Attribuit nos trâcidandos Céthégo. Cic. Quod ütendum accépéris, reddito.
- (b.) But the same meaning may be expressed actively by means of ad and the gerund; as, Gesar oppidum ad diripiendum militibus concessit.—The poets sometimes use the infinitive active for the same purpose; as, Tristitiam et mêtus tridam protervis in maire Cuspium portare ventis. Hor. In prose such us of the infinitive is of exceedingly rare occurrence; as, Bibère d'are. Cic.

REM. 8. (a.) The participle in dus, when agreeing with the subject of a settence, has the signification of necessity or propriety; sometimes, though rarely, except in later writers, that of possibility; as,

Is venerandus a nöbis et colendus est, He should be worshipped and honored by us. Cic. Delenda est Carthago, Carthage must be destroyed. Cato. Hee, speranda fuerunt. Virg. So with est used impersonally; as, Utrum pace nöbis an bello esset ütendum. Cic.

(b.) Sometimes, also, when not agreeing with the subject of a sentence, a has tils signification; as, Facta narrabus dissimulanda tibi, You were relating facts which you should have concealed Ovid. A. L. Brato principe hairs maxime conservandi générie et nôminis. Cic.

REM. 9. The participle in das, in its oblique cases, supplies the place of a present participle of the passive voice, to denote a continued or incomplete action; as, Occapatos sum in literis scribendis, in writing letters; literally, in letters which are being written. See § 275, II.—So, also, in the poets both in the nominative and oblique cases; as, Trigina magnos volvendis mensibus orbes império explibit. Virg. Volvenda dies. Id. Cf. Volventibus annis. Id.

Rem. 10. After participles in dus, the person by whom a thing must be done, is put in the dative, but in a few passages even of Cicero it is found in the ablative with db. See § 225, III.

REM. 11. The neuter of the participle in das, joined with a tense of esse in the periphrastic conjugation (see § 18.4, 3) retains the signification of necessity; as, Audendum est, We must venture. In early writers and sometimes also in the poets, an accusative of the object is joined with this neuter, if the verb is transitive; as, Nune pacem orandum, nunc—arma réponendum, et bellum estidale càvendum. Sil. But in classical Latin such accusative is generally changed to the nominative, and the participle is made to agree with it in gender and number. Thus, instead of virtaten laudandum est, we usually find cirtus laudandu est. The accusative in this connection is used by Ciccro in only two passages. Diendum est with the ablative occurs more than once in Ciccro; as, Quam suo cutque judicio sit ütendum.

REM. 12. In classical prose the participle in dus never has the signification of possibility, except when joined with the as, Yix optandum nobs ridebitur. Cic. Vix irat cridualum, i. e. the crid poterat. Later writers use it in this sense with negative particles, and at a later period it was used with still more frequency in the sense of possibility as well as in that of necessity.

 (a.) A participle is often employed, instead of a ver's, in a conditional, explanatory, adversative, relative, or other dependent clause; as,

Cărio, ad fócum sedenti (as he was sitting) magnum auri pondus Samniles attălêrunt. Cic. Tridui viam progressi, rurusu récertérunt; for, quam progressi essent. Cos. Diongisus tyramus, Styrācisis expulsus, Coriulio puèrus décibut. Cic. Diongisus, cultros métuens tonsòrios, candenti carbone sità indirebit capillum. 12. Risus interdum tha répente érumpit, ut eum cüpientis ténère néqueâmus. 1d. Riconbe abiture congrégantur in loco certo. Plin.

Note 1. If the participle refers to a noun not contained in the leading proposition, it so put with that noun in the ablative absolute. See § 257, R. 3.

Nore 2. (a.) The English clauses most frequently expressed in Latin by means of participles are such as are connected by relatives or by as, when, after, dilutough, since, because, etc.; as, Nêmo observat linuam nisi laborantem. Sen. Ut övölus, sic antonus, se non videns, dilu cernit,—though not perceiving itself. Cic. Serbilus, sic antonus, se (c.—b.) When a participle is connected with a relative or interrogative it can only be translated by a circumlocution; as, Non sunt ca bona dieenda, quibus abundantem lizet sees misserimum,—which one may possess in abundance, and still be very miserable 10. Senátus absurdum esse dicebat, ignóráre régem, quid spéraus aut pétens vénérit,—with what hop w request he had come. List

- (b.) When two verbs are in English connected by and, and the act not denoted by them are regarded as simultaneous, one of them may be expressed in Latin by the present participle; as, He sits and holds his lute, Ille (Arion) sedens citheran that. Ovid. Small hoc dicens attollit in agram se femur. Virg. e. hoc dair et attollid. But if one of the actions precede the other, the perfect participle must be used; as, Casar attacked and defeated the enemy, Casar lostes aggressus fügärid. Submersas obrue puppes, i e. Submerge et obrue. Virg.—When the English clause would be connected by although, the participle is often followed by timen. Later writers in such case join the participle is often followed by timen. Later writers in such case join the participle are connectines; vitum and vel with the participle itself; as, Casarem milites, quameis récüsantem ultro in Africam sunt sécut. Suet.; and these are connectines retained in the ablative absolute.—It is only in late Latin that participles are sometimes used in describing persons as possessing certain attributes, e. g. adstantes, andientes, for ii qui adstant, audiunt, i. e. the bystanders, heavers.
- (c.) A participle is used with verbs signifying to represent and perceive, especially to see and hear, when the object is described or perceived in a particular state; as, Apelles pinate Alexandran Magnum falmen trenentem. Plin. In English the infinitive is often joined with verbs of seeing and hearing; as, Audici te caneutem, I heard you sing. Yadimus Polighimum wasta se mide movemen. Virg.
- Note 3. In many cases, for want of a perfect participle active, and a present participle passive, this construction cannot be used. Thus, quam analysis cannot be exchanged for a participle corresponding with the English harring loved. As the perfect participles of deponent verbs, however, have an active signification, they admit of the participlat construction. The want of a perfect active participle may also be supplied by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute. See § 257, R. 5.

GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

§ 275. I. Gerunds are governed like nouns, and are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Mētus pārendi sībi, Fear of obeying him. Sall. Parcendo victis, By sparing the vanquished. Liv. Efféror stàdio patres restros videndi, I am transported with a desire of seeing your fathers. Cic. Pētendi consulātum grātiā. Sall. Vēnit ad rēcipiendum pecūnias. Varr.

- REMARK 1. The gerund is the same in form as the oblique cases of the neutral singular of participles in das, but it has the meaning of the active voice. It is sometimes translated by the present participle with a preposition, and sometimes by a present infinitive active; as, Consilium Licedomónium occapandi, A design of occupying, or to occupy, Lacedomon. Liv.
- Rem. 2. The gerund is sometimes, though rarely, used in a passive sense; as, Spes restituend multi-trait—of being restored. Nep. Allienas ērūdiendi grātā missus,—for the purpose of being instructed. Just. Ante dömandum. Virg. Ader ad impērandum. Cie.
- REM 3. The germud is in its nature a verbal noun, having only the ganitive, dative, ablative, and, after a preposition, the accusative. In its signification it corresponds with the English present participle when used as a verbal noun. Hence, in the oblique cases, it supplies the place of a declinable present infinitive native; but in the accusative there is this difference between the infinitive used as an accusative and the germad, that the infinitive has simply the power of an abstract noun, whereas the germud expresses a real action; as, Mallum interest inter dure et accipère. Sen. Non solum ad discendum propensions, sel claim ad discendum propensions.

II. When the *object* of an active verb is to be expressed, the participle in *dus* is commonly used in preference to the gerund; the object taking the case in which the gerund, if used, would have been put, and the participle agreeing with it.

Thus, to express 'the design of writing a letter,' which, with the aid of the gerund, would be represented in Latin by Consilium scribendi 'pistolam, the participle in dus is commonly substituted for the gerund: and since, in this example, the gerund, (scribendi) is in the genitive, the rule requires that, in exhibitating the participle for the gerund, the object of the gerund (the light dust) should also be put in the gentitive, and that the participle (scribendus) should agree with it in gender, number, and case. Hence with the participle the expression is, Consilium scribendae épistôlae. Between the two forms of construction there is no difference of signification. So, Consilia urbis delenda (Cic.), for urben delendi, Plans for destroying the city. Reparandarum classium causa (Suet.), for réparandi classes. Perpétiendo lábóri idôneus. Colum. Ad defendendam Romam ab opugnanda Capat dives Romamos abstraire. Liv.

REMARK 1. The same construction is used with the future passive participles of utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and rarely of methor, as these verbs were originally followed by the accusative; as, Ztus ad hee utenda idonea. Ter. Justitice fruendæ causā. Cic. In münēre fungendo. Id. Hostes in spem potiundorum castrorum vēnēraht. Cæs. Aquæ sālubritāte mēdendisque corporibus nobites. Vell.

REM. 2. When a participle is thus used for a gerund, it is called a gerundile and is usually translated like a gerund. The gerundive cannot be substituted for the gerund, where ambiguity would arise from the gender not being distinguishable. It should therefore not be used when the object of the gerund is a neuter pronoun or adjective; as, Aliquid faciendi vidio (Cic.), not alicajus. Artem et vera et falsa dijakteandi (Id.), not vero um dijakteandiran: because it would not be known whether alicajus and revorum were musculine or neuter. It is to be remarked, also, that the change of the gerund into the gerundive is less frequent in some writers than in others.

III. Examples of the construction of gerunds, in each of their cases, have been already given, among other nouns, under the heads Gentites, Dative, Accusative, and Abdative. The following remarks specify in what connections they are used: and when it is said that the gerundive is governed in any of the cases like the gerund, it will of course be understood of the noun which is limited by a gerundive.

REMARK I. The genitive of gerunds and gerundives may follow either nouns or relative adjectives; as,

Amor habendi. Cic. Patriam spes videndi. Virg. Nam habet mitūra, ut aliārum omnium rērum, sic vīvendi modam. Cic. Burbāru consaētādo hominum immobucībum, ld. Postrino Cātīhan dissīmīlandi causā aut sai expurgundi, in sīmitum rēnit. Sall. Inita sunt consilia urbis dēlenda, cirium trūcidandōrum, nominis Rōmāni exstinguendi. Id. Vēnandi stādīosi. Cic. Certus eundi. Virg. Insuclus nācīgandi. Cæs. Pērtus civitātis rēgenda. Nep.

(1.) The nouns after which these genitives most frequently occur are ārwy, ars, causa, consilium, consultudo, côpia, căpiditas, désiderium, difficultus, finis, flicultus, forma, grâtia, illêcebra, libido, locus, licentia, môdus, milêria, mos, occăso, ölium, pôtestas, râtio, spátium, spes, studium, tempus, úsus, rênia, vis, viluntas.

Note 1. With these and other substantives the infinitive also may be used, when with a tense of sum they form a periphrasis for a verb which is followed by the infinitive, or supply the place of an adjective of which the infinitive is the subject; as, Quibus ômaia hônesta atque inhônesta vendère mas èrat, With whom it was a custom, or, who were accustomed. Sall. Tempus est abire, it is time, i. e. tempesticum est, it is proper to go.

- (2.) The relative adjectives, which most frequently take after them these gentitives, are such as denote desire, knowledge, remembrance, and their contraries; as, áxidus, cápidus, studiosus, pēritus, impēritus, insuētus, certus, conscius, ignārus, rūdis, etc. See § 213, R. 1, (3.)
 - NOTE 2. With the relative adjectives the infinitive is also joined poetically.
- (3) Instead of an accusative after the gerund, or a genitive plural with a gerundive, a noun or pronoun in the genitive plural is sometimes joined with the gerund; as, Exemplorum litgendi potestes, instead of exempla litgendi, or, exemplorum litgendorum. Cie. Exrum rerum infiltandi ritio. Id. Ficultus agrorum condomudi. Cie. Nominandi storum riti copia. Plant.
- (4.) The pronoun tui and also the plurals vestri and sui, even when feminine are joined with the masculine or neuter form of the gerundlye in di; as, Quomam tui videndit est copia. Plant. Non viveor, ne quis hor me vestri adhortandi causă maquifice bloqui existimet. Liv. In costra vinivant sui purgandi causă.—With the demonstrative pronouns, vius, huiya, illius, the participle usually agrees, but in two passages of Terence vius, though referring to a woman, has the participle in di, not in due; as, Eyo ejus videndi cüpidus rectă consequor. Ter. Tus in the first example and vius in the last are feminine.
- (5) By a Greek idiom the gerund and gerundive, after the verb sum, are sometimes found in the genitive denoting a tendency or purpose, with no noun or adjective on which they can depend; as, Regium imperium initio conservandæ libertätis fiverat. Sall. Sometimes esse in some form is to be supplied; as, Quæ postquam gibrosa módo, nêque belli patrundi cognôvit, scil. esse. Id. Causã or grátiā may sometimes be supplied. In some other cases, also, the word on which the gerund in di depends is not expressed, and the gerund sems to be used instead of the infinitive; as, Māneat provinciālībus potentiam suam tāli módo ostentandi, scil. fācultas. Tac. Quum hābērem in ānimo nāvigandi, seil. prēpūstītum. Gic.
- REM. 2. The dative of gerunds and gerundives is used after adjectives which govern a dative (§ 222), especially after those which signify usefulness or fitness; and also after certain verbs and phrases, to denote a purpose; as,

Charta empérética est inătilis scribendo. Plin. Căpessendæ reipūblica hibilis. Too Ut nec triumeiri accipiundo, nec scribe referendo sufficèrent. Liv. Lòcum oppido condendo capere. Id. Non fuit constitum agrum ciolendo aut vianudo intentum atātem āgēre. Sull. Tibērius quāsi firmandæ vālētūdīmi in Campāniam concessit. Tac. Quam solvendo are ātieno respāblica non esset. Liv. Quum solvendo cividites non essent,—were insolvent. Cic.

- (1) The verbs and phrases upon which this dative most frequently depends are, Stadire, intentum esse, tempus impendire, tempus consumere or insumere, operam dare, sufficiere, satis esse, deesse, esse, signifying to serve for, to be adequate to, and, in later writers, on verbs of motion.—The dative of the gerund after sum is usually supposed to depend on idineus understood; but see § 227,
- (2.) The dative of the gerandive, denoting a purpose, is also used after names of office; as, Dicemetri legibus scribendis, i. e. the ten commissioners for drawing up a code of laws. Liv. So, Cômitia creandis decemviris. Id. Triumtivos agro dando creat. Id.
- (3.) A purpose is more commonly expressed by ad and the accusative of the gerund, or by a clause with ut, than by the dative; as, P\(\tilde{e}\)cus ad vescendum \(\tilde{b}\)ominibus \(\tilde{o}\)tal. Cic.
- REM. 3. The accusative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions ad, to, or inter, during or amid, and sometimes ante, circa, or ab; as

Ad pænttendum prójerat, qui cito júdicat. Pub. Syr. Inter töbezdum, Whili brinking. Just. Ad tölérandos fücilius láböres. Quint. Ad castra fücienda Cic. Ob absolvendum. Id.

N MTE. The construction of the gerundive instead of the gerund almost invariably occurs here when the object of the gerund is to be expressed.

REM. 4. The ablative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions a, (ab), de, e, (ex), or ir; or it is used without a preposition, as the ablative of cause, manner, or means; as,

Aristotilem non diterruit a scribendo. Cic. Ex assentando. Ter. Non videor a défendendis hominibus discédére. Cic. Crescit eundo. Virg. Rem quærunt mercatūris făciendis. Cic. Orăționem Lătinam legendis nostris efficies plenio-rem. Id.

Note 1. This ablative also occurs, though rarely, after pro and cum; as. Pro vāpūlando. Plaut. Cum lóquendo. Quint.

Note 2. Generally with the ablative of the means, and always with the ablative after a preposition, the gerund, when its object is to be expressed, is changed to the gerundive. In a few passages the ablative of the gerundive is differently construed; as, Nullum officium referenda gratia magis necessarium est, instead of relatione gratia. § 255. Cic. Nec jam possidendis publicis agris contentos esse. § 244. Liv. Is finis fuit ulciscenda Germanici morte,—in avenging the death of Germanicus. Tac.; where the ablative seems to imply time. § 253.

SUPINES.

- § 276. Supines, like gerunds, are verbal nouns, having no other cases except the accusative and ablative singular. In certain connections they supply the place of the present infinitive; the supine in un having an active and the supine in un a passive signification. As in the case of gerunds, we are to regard their construction both as rerbs and as nouns. As verbs we are to notice their government, as nouns, their dependence.
- Supines in um are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Non Grāiis servītum mātrībus ībo, I shall not go to serve Grecian matrons Virg. Te id admonītum vēnio. Plaut.

II. Supines in um follow verbs of motion, and serve to denote at the purpose of the motion; as,

Cūbitum discessimus. Cic. Ire dējectum monāmenta rēgis. Hor. Lēgāti rēnērunt questum injūrius, et res rēpētītum. Liv. Quum spectātum lūdos īret. Nep. So after participles; as, Patriam dēfensum rēvocātus. Nep. Spectātum admissi. Hor.

Nors. The construction of the supine in um, considered as a noun, is analogous to that of names of places in answer to the question 'whither?' (§ 237), the notion of purpose arising from its verbal character.

REMARK 1. Supines in um sometimes follow verbs which do not express motion; as, Do filiam nuptum. Ter. Vos ultum injūrias hortor. Sall.

REM. 2. The supine in um with eo literally signifies 'I go to do a thing,' and hence 'I intend,' or, 'am going to.' Instances of this use are found in Plautus and Terence and in the prose writers later than Cicero; as, Mea Gligerium, quid agis? car te is perditum? Why are you going to destroy yourself? Plaut. Bönörum præmus ereptum eunt. Sall. With eo the supine in um often forms a periphrasis equi salent to the same mood and terse of the verb from which the

supine is fort ed; as, Ne bonos omnes perditum eant (Sall.), for perdant. Ereptum eant (Id.), for cripinat. Ultum ivit (Tac.), for ultus est. Ultum ire injurial festinat, i. e. ulcisci. Sall.

REM. 3. The supine in nm most frequently occurs with the infinitive priwith which it forms the future infinitive passive; as, Bridum visum Irl a mepūto. Cic. In this construction the accusative properly depends upon the supine, and iri is used impersonally; 'I suppose that I am going to see Brutus.' I 184, 2, (a.) Its notion of futurity is derived from the proper signification of the active voice, as perdium iri, to go to destroy, the idea of intending passing easily into that of futurity.

REM. 4. But to express a purpose Latin writers in general prefer using a granul or gerur dive in the accusative with ad or in the genitive with causa or grāta, a subjunctive clause with ut or qut, a present or future active participle, and sometimes poetically an infinitive. See § 275, R. 1, 2: §§ 262, 264, 274, and 271.

III. The supine in u is used to limit the meaning of adjectives signifying wonderful, agreeable, easy or difficult, worthy or unworthy, honorable or base, and a few others; as,

Mirābīle dictu! Wonderful to tell, or to be told! Virg. Jūcundum cognītu atque audītu, Pleasant to be known and heard. Cic. Res factu fācīlis, A thing easy to be done. Ter. Fācīlia inventu. Gell. Incrēdībīle mēmorātu. Sall. Turpia dictu. Cic. Optimum factu. Id.

Note. The principal supines in n in common use are auditu, cognitu, dictu, factu, incentu, mēmōrātu and nātu, which occurs in the expressions, grandis, mājor, minor, maximus, and minimus nātu. In magno nātu, of an advanced age, and maximo nātu filius, the ldest son, nātu is the ablative of a verbal substantive, since neither gerunds nor supines are joined with adjectives.

REMARK 1. The principal sujectives, after which the supine in w occurs, are offabilis, orduns, usper, bouns, deformis, dignus, indiguns, dulars, davins, diguilis, difficulties, fradus, pavis, bonestus, horrendus, incredibilis, jacundus, injiteundus, magnus, mēmorābilis, moltis, prodetvis, pulders, rānus, turpis, and atīlis.

Rem. 2. The supine in u is used also after the nouns fas, nefas, and opus; as, Hoc fas est dictu. Cic. Nefas dictu. Ovid. Dictu opus est. Ter.—In the following examples it follows a verb: Pudet dictu. Tac. Agr. 32. Dictu fustulienda sund. Val. Max. 9, 13, 2.

REM. 3. As the supine in u is commonly translated by a passive form, it is placed under the passive voice; but, in many cases, it may with equal or greater propriety be translated actively. As a noun, its construction may be referred to the ablative of limitation, § 250.

- REM. 4. (a.) Instead of the supine in u, an infinitive, a gerund or gerunditve with ad, or a verbal noun in the ablative, and sometimes in the dative or accusative, may be used; as, Ardua imitiatu, cétérum coguosci attitu. Val. Max. Ilhud autem fácile ad crédendum est. Cic. Opus proscriptione dignum. Plin. Aqua pôtui jucundu. Id. Fáctilor ad intellectum atque imitationem. Quint. With opus est he perfect passive participle is often used instead of the supine in u; is, Opus est maturato, There is need of haste. Ci. § 243, R. 1.
 - (b). The construction with ad and the germud; as, res fâcilis ad intelligentum; or with sum and the infinitive active; as, fâcile est invênire, is used by the best writers after fâcilis, difficilis, and jâcundus. The most common construction of dignus is with gui and the subjunctive, (§ 264, 9), but the poets and later prose writers have joined it with the infinitive passive.

ADVERBS.

§ 277. I. Alverbs modify or limit the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of other adverbs; as,

Bêne môxes, You advise well. Ter. Fortissime urgentes, Most v.gorously pressing on. Plin. Müle narrando. Ter. Longe dissimilis. Cic. Valde bene. Id

REMARK 1. Adverbs may also modify nouns, when they are used as adjectives or participles, and accordingly 'denote a quality, or when a participle is inderstood. They are also joined to adjective pronouns, when their adjective haracter predominates; and sometimes limit the meaning of a preposition; as, Populus lite rex, for lite regnans,—ruling far and wide. Virg. Nikli admoidam, Nothing at all. Cie. Höno plane moster,—entirely ours that is, devoted to us. bl. Homérus plane brotor. kl. Admoidam puells. Liv. Late tyranus. Hor. Grátibus süperne ictibus conflictabantur, i. c. süperne accidentibus. Tac. Multaum circa citataum, i. e. neighboring cities. Liv.

REM. 2. (a.) Most of the modifications made by adverbs may also be made by means of the various cases of nouns and adjectives, and many modifications may be made by these, for expressing which no adverbs are in use. In general those limitations which are most common can be expressed by adverbs; as, sipin ther for cums adjustiff; this for in hoc bloe; bene for in blow mode, name for hoc tempore.—(b.) The following are examples of other parts of speech used adverbially, viz. Nihil, 'in no way'; nonnihil, 'in some measure'; quidquam, 'at all'; dilquid,' somewhat'; quid!' why?'

Rem. 3. A negative adverb, modifying another negative word, destroys the negation; as,

Non părive noluit, He was not unwilling to obey. Nep. Haud ignăra măli, Not ignorant of evil. Virg. Haud nihil est, It is something. Ter. Nec hoc üle non vidit, And this he clearly perceived. Cic. So, nonnulli, some; nonnunquam, sometimes. Non, before a negative word, commonly heightens the affirmative sense, while it softens the expression; as, Homo non indoctus, i. e. homo săne doctus. Non sêmel, i. e. sapius; non ignôro, non nescio, non sum nescius, I know very well. Qui mortem în mălis pônit, non pôtest eam non timēre,—must needs feur it. Cic.

Rem. 4. When the subject and predicate of a proposition are both modified by negative words, and also when the predicate contains two negatives, the proposition is affirmative; as,

N-mo non videt, Every one sees. Cic. Neque her non evenerunt, And this inde of took place. So, if both the antecedent and the predicate of a relative clause are negative, the proposition is affirmative; as, Nemo est, qui nesciat, Evener body knows. Cic.

- Resi. 5. a.) But in the case of non followed by ne—quiden, the two negative do not destroy each other; as, Non figio ne hos quiden mõres; and whon the regative leading proposition has subordinate subdivisions with nõque—nû pue, rere—nêve, or non—non, these negative particles are equivalent to aut—aut; as, Non me carminibus vincet, nec Orpheus, nec Linus. Virg. Neminem, non re, non verbo, non vultu denique offendi. Cic. Nullius rei nêque præs, nêque maxee, practus est. Nep.
- (b.) In a few passages, however, two negatives in Latin, as in Greek, strengthen the negation, and this exception appears to have been derived from the language of common life; as, Java te non nocitivam homin nemnii. Plaut.
- (c.) Nimo, nallus, nihil, and numquam have a different sense according as the non is place before or after them; as, Non nimo, some one; nimo non, every one; non nula, some; nullus non, every; non nihil, something; nihil non, every thing; non numquam, sometimes; numquam non, at all times. So, nusquam non, every where, but instea! of nonunsquam, dictable is used.

REM. 6. (a., Non is sometimes omitted after non modo or non solum, when followed, in a subsequent clause, by ne quidem, if both clauses have the same verb, and if the verb is contained in the second clause; as, Mihi non robdo trasci, sed ne dölere quidem impūne līcet, which is e uivalent to Mihi non modo non īrasci, sed ne dölere quidem impūne līcet, or Mihi non modo trasci, sed dölere quidem impūne non līcet, Not only am 1 not permitted to be angry, but not even to grieve with impunity. Cic. Quum sēnātai non sõlum juvāre rempāhītam, sed ne lūgēre quidem līcērēt. Il

(b.) Non is also rurely omitted after non mode when followed by sed or rerus, with étam, and also after viz: as, Qui non mode ea fittura timet, verum étiam fert, sustinetque presentia, Who not only does not fear... Cic. Hee généra cirtitum non solum in moribus nostris, sed viz jum in Ebris répérientur, These vitues are not only not found in life, but scarcely in books. Id.

Rem. 7. Făcile, in the sense of undoubtedly, clearly, is joined to superlatives, and words of similar import; as, Vir ânus tölius Græcue făcile doctissimus. Cic. Hōmo realionis illius virtăte fácile ortineess. Id.

REM. 8. Sentences are often united by means of an adverb which is repeated before each of the connected clauses; as, mode—mode, and name—nume, (sometimes—sometimes); as, Mode hoe, mode illud divit; mode hue, mode illue color linstend of the second mode other particles of time are sometimes used; as, illuando, nonnumquam, interdum, serpius, tum or deinde.—Partim—partim, 'partly—partly,' is sometimes used with a genitive or the preposition ex, in the sense of alti—diti, as a nominative in all the genders; as, Quam partim e nobis ita timidi sund, ut, etc., partim ita républică aversi, ut, etc.—Simul—simul, 'as well—as,' like nunc—nunc is not found in Ciecon—Quad—qua' is equivalent to etc—t.—Tum—tum is used sometimes like mode—mode, sometimes like partim—partim; as Erumpunt sepe vitia âmicorum tum in ipsos âmicos, tum in difunos. Cic. Hae (bênê ficia) tum in ûniversam rempüblicum, tum in singâlos cives conférentur. Id.

REM. 9. Quam—tum is equivalent to et—et, except in assigning a greater importance to the second part; hence it must be translated by 'both—and especially,' 'not only—but also,' or 'but more particularly.' Sometimes additional weight is given to the second part by means of vêro, certe, êtim, quō-que, præcipue, imprimis or maxime. This use of quam—tum seems to have had its origin in the use of quam with the subjunctive and often with the indicative in the protasis, followed by tum in the apodosis. When quam followed by tum serves to express the opposition between single words which have the same verb, it is to be regarded as a complete adverb; as, Fortuna quam in rêtiquis robus, tum precipue in bello plarinuum potest. Sometimes the verb stands in the first part of the sentence; as, Quam omais arroguatia olitica est, tum illa ingénii atque èloquentiæ multo molestissima. Tum is sometimes repeated in the second part of the sentence; as, Quam poter moriens quam tatoribus et própinquis, tum equitati magistrátuum, tum judiciis vestris commendatum putarit. Cie. Sometimes the graduction is, quam—tum—tum véro.

REM. 10. Non môdo—sed étiem (or non sôlum, or non tantum—vêrum étiem) generally expresses the transition from less important to more important things, like the English 'not only—but (also)'. The transition from greater to smaller things is expressed by non môdo—sed, without the étiam, which we render in English by 'I will not say—but only,' and in Latin, too, we may say non dicom or non dico—sed; as, Quid est ênim minus non dico ôrdioris, sed hômtais.

REM. 11. Tam—quam expresses a comparison in degree; as, Nêmo tam multa scripst, quam multa sant nostra. With super'utives they are rendered into English by the—the' and comparatives; as, Viternõusa quam plārmam bibli, tam muxime stiti, The more he drinks, the more he thirsts. Cato. Quam paisque pessime fēcit, tam maxime titus est. Sall—Tam—quam quod maxime significs, 'as much as possible.'—Non tam—quam signifies, 'not so much—as,' or 'less—than'; as, Prôvincia non tam grātiōsa et illustris, quam negôtiōsa ac molesta. Cit

REM. 12. Non minus—quam and non mäqis—quam are equivalent to aque et, 'as much as,' but in non mäqis—quam the greater weight is attached to the affirmative clause beginning with quam; as, Alexander non dücis mägis quam

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militis mānia exsiquibātur, Alexander performed as much the service of a soldier as that of a commander. In this connection plus frequently supplies the place of magus.

(a.) Sic and ita are demonstrative adverbs corresponding to the relative ut. The restrictive meaning of itu (see § 191, R. 5.), is sometimes made more emphatic by the addition of timen. Tantus is used in a like restrictive sense; as, Presidii tantum est, ut ne mirus quidem cinqi possit, i. e. 'only so much' Cars.

(b.) Ut—ita or sic places sentences on an equality. They may sometimes be translated 'although—still,' or 'indeed—but.'—The adverb ut, 'as,' sometimes takes the signification of the conjunction quod, 'because'; as, Atque ille ut semper full apertissimus, non se purgacit. Cic.

REM. 13. In an enumeration, primum, deinde, tum, dévique are commonly preferred to the numerals, primum, sécundo, (for sécundam is not often used), tertium, quartum, etc., unless the strict succession of the numbers is required. Sometimes tum is used once or twice instead of deinde, or the series is extended by accédit, hue adde, etc. Sometimes dévique is followed by postrémo to form the conclusion of a series, but often dévinque without the other adverbs concludes a series, and is then equivalent to 'in short' or 'in fine.' See Cic. Cat. 1, 5.

REM. 14. Minus is often used for non; as, Nonnumquam ea, quæ prædicta sunt, minus éeniumt. Cic.—So, si minus—ad, 'if not—vet,'? and sin minus, 'but if not,' without a verb, after a preceding st; but with si non the verb is repeated.—The English 'how little' is in Latin quam non; and 'so little,' ita non or adeo non; as, adeo non earbat, quick homines de se lôquérentus.

REM. 15. Nunc always expresses the time actually present, or the time to which a narrator transfers himself for the purpose of making his description livelier. Thus in speaking of the present time we may say, Nunc primum somnia me éladant or élasérant; but in a narrative we must say, Somnia tunc primum se dicebat élassies. Compare the use of hic and ille. See § 207. R. 23, (c.)

REM. 16. The conjunction dum, 'while,' when added to negatives, becomes an adverb, signifying 'yet'; as, nondum, 'not yet'; needum, 'and not yet'; nullasdum, 'no one yet'; nlhildum,' nothing yet.' Hence vizdum signifies 'scarcely yet'; as, Vizdum épistolum tuam légéram, quum ad me Curtius vénit. Cic.—So, also, the conjunction nisi, by omitting its verb or uniting it with the leading yerb, acquires, after negatives and negative questions, the sense of the adverb 'except,' which is generally expressed by praterquam or the preposition prater, and must be so expressed when no negative precedes. But the expression 'except that' may be rendered either by nisi quad or praterquam quod.—After nihit áliud we may use either nisi or quam, nisi referring to nihil and quam to áliud. Hence nihit áliud nisi signifies 'nothing further,' or 'nothing more,' and nihit áliud quam, 'nothing else,' or 'no ther thing but this.'

REM. 17. Ut, 'as,' in interposed clauses, such as ut opinor, ut pato, ut censeo, ut crédo, is frequently omitted. Crèdo, used in this manner often takes an ironi-ral sense.

PREPOSITIONS.

- II. 1. See respecting the construction of prepositions with the accusative, § 235; and with the ablative, § 241. See, also, for the different meanings of prepositions, § 195, and for their arrangement, § 279, 10.
- 2. Two prepositions must not be joined in Latin, as they sometimes are in English, with the same noun; as, to speak for and against a law; or, I have learned this with, and, to some extent, from him. These sentences may be thus expressed in Latin; pro lège et contra lègem dicère; hac cum eo, partim tètam ab co didei. Those dissyllable prepositions only, which are sometimes used as adverbs, may follow another, without being joined with a case; as, Quod aut sècundum hatiram essel, aut contra. Cic. Cis Pádum ultràque. Liv Easar reverses the order, Intra extraque minitiones. B. Civ. 3, 72

3. When nouns mutually dependent upon a preposition are in apposition, when they constitute an enumeration without a connective, and when connected by copulative, disjunctive, adversative, or comparative conjunctions, the preposition is not repeated, unless such nouns are to be distinguished from each other, or are emphatic; as,

Quid dicam de thésauro omnium rérum, mémoria? Hoc apparet in bestiis, volucribus, nantibus, agrestibus, cichribus, féris, ut se ipsa diligant. Cic. Sepissime inter me et Scipionem de amicitud discributur. A. Quid fuéres si in aliquam domum villamve vénisses? Id. Nibil per iram aut cupiditatem actam est. Id. Thémistocles non minus in rébus gérendis promptus quam excogitandis érat. Nep.

4. The monosyllabic prepositions ab, ad, de, ex, and in are often used before each of two nouns connected by d, etc., especially if the qualities denoted by such nouns are to be considered separately. If the nouns are separated by et—et., ncc—ncc, etc., the prepositions must be repeated; as, Ut corum et in bellicis et in eteilibus officis signet industria. Cic.—Inter is frequently repeated by Cicero after interesses, and other writers repeat it after other verbs also; as, Quid intersit inter pópilarem—cicem, et inter constantem, secerum et gravem. Cic. Certatum inter Ap. Claudium maxime ferunt et inter P. Décium. Liv.

5. (a.) In poetry a preposition is occasionally omitted with the first of two nouns, and pnt with the second only; as, Que némôra, aut quos âqor in spécus. (Hor.) for, in que némôra aut in quos spécus âqor. So, Hor. Ép. 2, 1, 25.—(b.) An ellipsis of a preposition with the relative pronoun sometimes occurs, together with that of the verb belonging to the preceding demonstrative; as, he eâdem ôpiniône fui, quă réliqui omnes, (Cic.), properly in quă réliqui omnes fuivant.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 278. Copulative, disjunctive, and other coordinate conjunctions, connect similar constructions.

Note 1. Clauses are similarly constructed, which are mutually independent, whose subjects and verbs are in the same case and mood, and which have either no dependence or a similar dependence on another clause.

Note 2. (a.) Words have a similar construction, when they stand in the same relation to some other word or words in the sentence. Hence,

(b.) Conjunctions connect the same cases of nonus and pronouns, depend ent, if the cases are oblique, upon the same government; the same number case, and gender of adjectives, belonging to the same nonu; the same mood of verbs, either independent, or alike dependent: adverbs qualifying the same verbs, edjectives, etc.; and prepositions on which depends the same noun or pronoun; as, Concident venti, fuginatque nabes, The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Hor. Locam, quene et non coquit sol, et tangit ros. Varr. Ladd dicem per dies, facti sunt, neque res ulla pretermissa est. Cic. Vites, ut altá ste nive candidam Sirvacte, nec jam sustinent donas sitee hibrardes, pilaque flamina constitérint àcido. Hor. Intelligitis et animan et præsto fuisse, nec consiliem definises. Cic. Genéri animantium nome est a nálitar tribatum, ut se tucătur, diclineque e.a., que mócitar videnatur. Id. Ant nêmo, aut Câto săpiens furt. Id. Pulvis et unbura sâmus. Hor. Si tu et Tullia videits, égo et Ciero videnus. Cic. Aggère jacto turribusque constitătis. Ces. Clărus et honoratus vir. An illustrious and honorable man. Id. Casar Rêmus cohoratus, tibéralterque ôratione prosecutus. Cas. Pater tues, quem colni et dilexi. Cic. Belga spectant in sepientrionem et ôrientem solenn. Cas. Năvibus junctis, rătibusque complaribus factis. Id. Lêge, vet tibelbus redde. Plaut. Allobróges trans Rhodinam vicos possessionesque habibont. Cass. Quam triumphum egeris, censorque fueris, ea

Ades ānim et ŏmitte timōrem. Cic. Ea vidēre ac perspicēte pôtestis. Id Grāvīter et opiose dixisse dictur. Id. Cum frātre an sine. Id. Cf. § 277, Il. 2. Cui carmina cordi, nimōrosque intendere nervis. Virg. Mec cesusu, nec clārum nomen āvorum, sed probitas magnos ingeniumque fācit. Ovid. Philosophi nēgant quenquam virum bōnum esse, nisi sāpientem. Cic. Glōria virtūtem tamquam umbra sēpaitur. Id.

REMARK I. Copulative conjunctions may connect either single words and phrases or entire clauses; the other conjunctions, whether coördinate or subordinate, connect clauses only.

REM. 2. Words thus connected are sometimes in different cases, though in the same construction; as, Meñ et reipüblicæ intérest. Cic. (See § 219.) Sire es Romes, sive in Epiro. Id. (See §§ 221 and 254. But see also § 221, Note.) In Metlii descendat jädicis aures, et patris et nostras. Hor. See § 211, R. 3. In like manner, Hannibal non älliter vince põtuit, quam mõist.

REM. 3. As the subjunctive is often used for the imperative, they may be connected by coordinate conjunctions; as, Disce nec invideas. Pers.

REM. 4. Where the purpose of the writer requires it, coordinate conjunctions sometimes connect independent propositions, whose verbs are in different moods; as, Stiporem hominis, rel dicam pécadis, videte. Cic. Nec saitis scio, nec, si sciam, dicère ausim. Liv.

Rem. 5. Et is used after multi followed by another adjective, where in English 'and' is usually omitted; as, Multw et magnus arbores, Many large trees. In such cases ϵt supplies the place of ϵt is, introducing a more accurate description. See § 207, R. 25, (c.)

REM. 6. The conjunction is often omitted; as, (a.) When two single words, as comprehending the whole idea, are opposed to each other, as, veilim, nölim, whether I would or not; maxima minima, the greatest as well as the least; prima postrema, from the first to the last; dignos indignos addre; ree rédire, to got o and fro. Ædificiis omnibus publicis prirátis, sacris próf ains sie répercit. Cie. Nam gloriam, hónörem, impérium bónus ignāvus æque sibi exoptant. Sall. C. 11.

(b.) Et is very frequently omitted between the names of two colleagues; as, Consiles dicalizadi sant Cn. Pompeius M. Crassus. P. Lendilo L. Triairo, quastoribus urbinis. Cic. Sometimes, also, when the two persons are not colleagues, it is also occasionally omitted between two words in the ornotorical style; as, Adernat âmici, projunque. Id.; also with verbs; as, Adsunt, quèruntur Sicüli. Id. In good prose, if three or more substantives are joined, it is usual either wholly o omit the conjunction or to insert it between each. The following may serve as an example of both cases: Qui non modo Curis, Catonbus, Pompeiis, antiquis like, ach his réceutibus, Máriis et Dailis et Celiis commemorandis jacébant. This is also the common practice with adjectives and verbs, and hence when et has not previously occurred in an enumeration of persons or things, we should not conclude the enumeration with et âlii, et reliqui, et citira, etc., but should make use of the adjectives alone, âlii, reliqui, citira, etc. But though et, ac and atque are not used alone in the third or fourth place, yet the enclitic que frequently occurs in this position; as, Précor ut ar res robis pâcem, tranquilitaiem, âlium, concordiamque affirat. Cic. Et may be supplied also when two protases introduced by si are joined together; where we say 'if—and if,' or 'if—and.' See an example in Cic. Off. 3.9.

(c.) An ellipsis of ut is supposed when ne precedes and et, atque, or que is used to continue the sentence, those copulative conjunctions in such case of the adversative sed; as, Mönère capit Pörum, ne ultima

experiri perseveraret, dederetque se victori. Curt.

REM. 7. Copulative conjunctions are often used, before each of two or more connected words or clauses, in order to mark the connection more forcibly; as, Et pécania persuadet, et gràtia, et methritus dicentis, et dignitus, et postrima aspectus. Quint. Hoe et turpe, noe timen titum. Cie. N'eque natu est, et eterra est. Id. Et thie tanhi robuptait fore. Id. Before clauses the disjunctive cor

junctions are used in a similar manner; as, Res ipsa aut invitābit aut dēhortābi tur. Id. 50, also, nunc...nunc, simul...simul, partim...partim, quā...quā, tum...tum, quam...tum, are used before successive clauses.

REM. 8. To connect different names of the same person or thing, sive or sex rather than aut or vel, is employed; as, Mars sive Māvors. Cf. § 198, 2, (c.)

REM. 9. Instead of et and ut with the negatives newn, whil, nullus, and numquem, nêque (or nec), and ne are used with the corresponding affirmative words quisquam, utlus, unquam, and usquam. But 'in order that no one' is rendered in Latin by ne quisquam, see \$4.207, R. 31, (a.); us, Höred quidem cédunt, et dies, et menses, et aunt : nec prederitum tempus unquam revertitur. Clic. Similus decrévit, durent opèram consules, ne quid respublica detrimenti oùèret. Cass.

Rem. 10. The conjunctions toltur, vērum, vērumtūmen, sed, and sed tāmen, in dicate a return to the construction of the leading clause, when it has been disturbed by the insertion of another clause. These conjunctions, in such connection, are usually rendered by 'I say,' and sometimes in Latin inquam is so used. Num also is occasionally employed in this way and very rarely itaque.

REM 11. Vero and autem are frequently omitted in adversative clauses, especially in short ones; as, Vincère scit Hannibal, cictòrià dit nescit. Liv. This omission often occurs in describing a progress from smaller to greater things, as in Cic. Cat 1, 1. And it is to be remarked that non in the second member of such adversative sentences is used without et or vero; as, dition vita ridet, sua non videt. But in unreal suppositions or ironical sentences, where the second member contains the truth, et non or ac non must be used, where we may supply 'rather'; see § 198, 1, (c.); as, Quási nunc id āgātur,—ac non hoc quaerātur. Cic.

INTERJECTIONS.

Respecting the construction of interjections with the nominative, see § 209 R. 13:—with the dative, § 228, 3:—with the accusative, § 238, 2:—and with the vocative, § 240.

ARRANGEMENT.

OF THE WORDS OF A PROPOSITION.

- § 279. 1. In arranging the parts of a proposition in English, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and the words which modify or limit it; next, the verb and its modifiers; then, the object of the verb; and finally, prepositions and the words depending upon them. This is called the logical or natural order.
- 2. (a.) In Lattin, either of the four principal parts of a sentence may be placed first, and there is great freedom in the arrangement of the rest, but with this general restriction in prose, that words which are necessary for the complete expression of a thought should not be separated by the intervention of other words. In ordinary discourse, especially in historical writing, the following general rule for the arrangement of the parts of a sentence is for the most part observed.
- (b.) In a Latin sentence, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and its modifiers; then, the oblique cases and other words which depend upon or modify the verb; and last of all, the verb.

- (c.) Hence a Latin sentence regularly begins with the subject and ends with the principal verb of its predicate; as, Dumnoris gratia et largitione apad Siquanos plarimum poterat. Cass. But the verb is of major placed at the end of a sentence, especially if the sentence is long, or if sent many verbs would be thus brought together at the end. In the familiar style, also, the verb is often placed earlier in the sentence, and in explanatory clauses it is sometimes placed at the very beginning of the proposition, in which case a conjunction is generally added.
- (d.) It is also to be remarked, as a further modification of the general rule of arrangement, that, in sentences containing the expression of emotion, the word whose emphasis characterizes it as especially affecting the feelings, or as forming a contrast, is placed at the beginning; as, Cito areset lucrima, presertim in alleins malls, Quickly dries the tear, especially when shed for others' woes. Cic. Sua ritia inspirentes et suam culpum in senectatem conferunt. Id.
- (e.) If there be no emotive or pathetic word requiring prominence, the place at the end of the proposition is reserved for the significant word, that is, the word which is to be most strongly impressed upon the understanding or memory; as, Gallia est omnis dicisa in partes tres. Cres. Quod ante id tempus accidirat nunquam. Id. Quod âlud iter hābērent nullum. Id. Quov virtus ex providendo est appellata prindentia. Cic.
- 3. (a.) Connectives generally stand at the beginning of the clause which they introduce, and with the following this is their only position; viz., et, ĕtĕnim, ac, at, atque, atqui, nĕque or nec, aut, vel, sīve, sin, sed, nam, vērum, and the relatives quāre, quōcirca, and quamobrem.
- (b.) Most other connectives generally stand in the first place, but when a particular word is peculiarly emphatic, this word with all that belongs to it stands first, and the conjunction follows it. U, even when there is no particular emphasis, is commonly placed after vize, pense, and prope, and also after the negatives nallus, nëmo, nihit, and the word tantum. In Cierco, titique stands first and igitar is commonly placed after the first, and sometimes after several words.
- (c.) Autem, thim, and wive (but), are placed after the first word of the clause, or after the second, when the first two belong together, or when one of them is the auxiliary v.e. sum; as, Ille thim revocates resistere capit. Cass. Eye vero rellem, offuiss. Cic. Incredibile est thim, quam sit, etc. Id. They rurely occur after several words; as, Cur non de integro autem datum. Id. The enclities que, ne, ve, are usually subjoined to the first word in a clause; but when a monosyllable preposition stands at the beginning, they are often attached to its case; as, Romam Cito démigrateit, in foreque esse capit; and this is always the case with a, ad and ob. So, also, for the sake of euphony, Apad quosque. Cic.
- (d.) Quidem and quōque, when belonging to single words, are always suijoined to the emphatic word in a clause; as, Ferbo ille reus èrat, re quidem
 viro Oppianicus. Cic. He scikeet maxime, sed proxime illum quōque frifelissem. Id. In negative sentences, ne precedes, and quidem follows, the emphatic
 word; as, Ne ad Cūtōnem quidem provocabo. Cic.—Quidem is sometimes attracted from the word to which it properly belongs to a neighboring pronounst, Tibique persuade, esse te quidem mihi cairistmum, sed multo fore cairioren,
 si, etc., instead oi, te cărissmum quidem multi esse.—Prepositions and conjunctions belonging to the word on which the emphasis rests are placed with it between ne and quidem; as, Ne in fănis quidem. Cic. Ne si dabictur quidem. Id.
 Ne quum in Sicilia quidem fuit. Id.; and even Ne cigas rei arquiertur quidem.—
 So, also, in Cicero, non nisi, 'only,' are separated; and the negative may even
 be contained in a verb.
- (e) The preceding rules respecting the position of connectives are often rolated by the poets, who place even the propositive conjunctions after one or more words of a proposition; as, Et tu, potes nam, etc. Hor. Vivos et roddres.

- unques. Id. They even separate et from the word belonging to it, as, Audira et videor pios errāre per lacos. Id. So, Auctius atque dis valitus froire. Id And they sometimes append que and ve neither to the first word, nor to their proper words in other connections; as, Messallam terrā dum séquiturque māri, instead of terrā mārique. Tib. In such arbitrary positions, however, these conjunctions are almost invariably joined to verbs only.
- 4. When a word is repeated in the same clause, so that one is opposed to, or distinguished from, the other, they must stand together; as, Homines homitabus maxime titles case possant. Cic. Equites alii alio titlugui saut. Liv. Légitue virum vir. Virg. Manus manum lácut. Petr. So, also, the personal and cossessive pronouns; as, Séquère quo tua te nătăra dăcit. Suum se něgūtium igére dicunt.
- Words used antithetically are also placed near each other; as, Dum tăcent, clămant. Cic. Frăgile corpus ănimus sempiteruus mövet. Id.
- 6. Injunna and often aio, introducing a quotation, follow one or more of the words quoted; as, "Non nosti quid păter," inquit, "Chrisippus dicat." Hor. "Quid," ajo, 'tua crimina prodis?" Ovid. When a nominative is added to inquit, it usually follows this verb; as, "Mili vero, inquit Cotta, videtur. Cic.—Dicil and dixii are used like inquit only by the poets.
- 7. (a.) The adjective may be placed before or after its noun according as one or the other is emphatic, the more emphatic word being placed before the other. When any thing is dependent on the adjective, it usually follows its noun. When a noun is limited by another noun, as well as by an adjective, the adjective usually precedes both; as, Ulla officii pracepta. Cie. Tuum erga dignitatem meam staduam. Id.
- (b.) Demonstratives, and the adjectives primus, médius, etc., when signifying the first part, the middle part, etc., (see § 205, R. 17), usually precede their nouns; as, Ea res. Caes His ipsis verbis. Cic. Média nox. Caes. Réliqua Ægyphus. Cic.
- Monosyllables are usually prefixed to longer words with which they are connected; as, Vir clārissīmus. Cie. Di immortāles. Res innumērābiles. Vis tempestātis. Cæs.
- 9. (a.) When nouns are put in apposition, the one which explains or defines the other is generally put last, unless it is to be made emphatic; as, Opes irritumenta molorum. Ovid. Hence names of honors or dignities, and every thing of the nature of a title, are commonly placed after the proper name, as explantory additions. Thus, especially, the names of changeable Roman dign.ties; as, Citéro consul; C. Cardoni tribûno plêbis; but also permanent appellations; s., Emains poêta; Plâto philosophus; Dionjesis tyrannus; and such epithets as rir hônestissimus; hômo doctissimus. But the hereditary title rex is frequently placed before the name; as, rex Delictarus; and so the title Impérâtor after it became permanent.
- (b.) In the arrangement of the Roman names of persons, the grandmen stands first, next the nomen or name of the gens, third the cognitumes or name of the fundia, and last the agnotines; as, Publius Cornelius Scipio Africavas. The prenomen is usually denoted by a letter. In the imperial times the nomen is often either omitted or follows as something subordinate.
- (a.) Oblique cases precede the words on which they depend, but they follow prepositions; as,

Populi Romāni laus est. Cic. Laudis āvidi, pēcuniæ libērāles. Sall. Cunctis esto bēnignus, nulli blawlas, paucis fimiliāris, omnībus æguas. Sen. Mānāmentum ære pēremius. Hor. Hanc tibi dono do. Ter.—Ad mēridiem spectans. Cic. Extra pēricūlum. Id.

(b.) Genitives depending upon neuter adjectives are commonly placed last, as, Incerta forume. Liv. Nec tibi plus cordis, sed minus oris inest. Ovid.

REMARK. This rule, so far especially as it relates to genitives, is in a great degree arbitrary, as the position of the governed and governing words depends on the idea to be expressed; thus, more patric tot, contrasts the death with the preceding life; but, fratric tait more distinguishes this case of death from others. Hence we say, animi motus, animi morbus, corporis partes, terre motus.—An objective genitive usually follows the worl on which it depends; as, and significations filterarum, by means of a single notice by letters.—When several genitives are dependent on one noun, the subjective genitive commonly precedes and the objective genitive may either precede or follow the governing noun.—The genitive dependent on causa or gratic, 'on account of,' regularly precedes these ablatives; as, gloire causa moretem object; emoliment is ut gratic.

(c.) When a noun which is governed by a preposition, is modified by other words which precede it, the preposition usually stands before the words by which the noun is modified; as, A prima like ad sextum horam. Liv. Ad anium

mei ketītiam. Cic. Ad bēne beātēque vīvendum. Id.

(d.) Sometimes, however, the preposition comes between its noun and an adjective or a genitive, by which the nonn is modified; as, Nullā in re. Cic. Justis de causis. Id. Suos inter copales. Id. Hunc ob causam. Id. Magno cam mêtu. Id. Quā in urbe Id. Eā in re. Id. Ætālis suc cum prīmis. Nep.—So, also, a conjunction may follow the preposition; as, Post vēro Sullæ victōrium.

- (e.) Per, in adjurations, is often separated from its case by other words; as, Per ēgo te deos ôvo. Ter.—In the poets, other prepositions are sometimes separated in the same manner; as, Vulnēra, que circum plurima mūros accēpit patrios. Virg.
- (f.) Tanus and versus, and sometimes other prepositions, (cf. § 241, R. 1.) follow their cases, especially when joined with qui or kic. This occurs most frequently with the prepositions ante, contra, inter, and propeter; more rarely with circa, circum, pètes, ultra and adversus; and with still less frequency with post, per, ad, and de; as, quam ante, quem contra, quos inter, quem propeter, quos ad, quem ultra, kanc adversus, kanc post, quam circa.—The preceding prepositions, and more rarely others also, sometimes, especially in the poets and later prose writers, follow nouns and personal pronouns. In such case, if the noun be modified by an adjective or a genitive, the preposition sometimes stands between them, and sometimes follows both; as, Postes sub ipsos. Virg. Repum âpude Euphrâtis. Tac. Miria omnia circum. Virg. And more rarely other words intervene; as, His accensa süper. Id. Vitiis nēmo sine nasctur Hor.

Infinitives precede the verbs on which they depend; as,

Jügurtha, übi oos Africā dēcessisse rātus est, nēque propter lōci nātūram Cīrtam armis expugnāre possit, muenia circumdat. Sail. Servīre māgis quam impērāre pārāti estis. Id.

- 12. A word which has the same relation to several words, either precedes or follows them all; as, Vir grāvis et söpiens. Cic. Clārus et hönörātus vir. Id ha scriptörhus lēgendis et tinitandis, or In lēgendis initandisque scriptoribus, but not In lēgendis scriptöribus et initandis. Quam respondēre nēque rellet nēque posset. Hibentur et dicuntur týranni. Amicitiam nec üsu nec rútione habent cognitam.
- Relatives are commonly placed after their antecedents, and as near to them as possible; as,
- Qui sim, ex eo, quem ad te misi, cognosces. Sall. Literas ad te misi, per quas grātias tibi ēgi. Cic.
- 14. Quisque is generally placed after se, suus, qui, ordinals and superlatives; us, Suos quisque débet tuèri. Cic. Sâtis siberque est sibi sadirum cuique rirum curu. 1d. Séviritus àumaderesionis infimo cuique gràtissimo. 1d. Mactine décet, quod est ciijusque maxime suum. 1d. Quisque very rarely begins a roposition.

15. (a.) An adverb is usually placed immediately before the word v hich if qualifies; but if the same word is modified by the oblique case of a noun, the latter commonly follows the adverb; as, Male parta male dilabantar. Cic. Mild tam asperum neque tum difficile esse, quod non cupidisstime factive essent. Sall.—Impérium tacle its artibus retinetur, quibus intito partum cst. Id. Sod maxime adoltescentum familiaritates appetebat. Id. Non tam in bellis et el prellis, quant in promissis et file firmiorem. Cic.—(b.) When non belongs to a single word of the proposition, it always stands immediately before it; as, non te reprehendo, sed fortanam. But if it belongs to the proposition generally, it stands before the verb, and particularly before the finite verb, if an infinitive depends on it; as, Cur tantopère te angus, intelligère sone no possum. Instead of non-lico, uégo is generally used; as, négacit eum adesse.—The negatives von, que, amon, nullus, unquam, always precede them though not always immediately; so, m'mini quidquam negati; non mêmin me unquam te videse, § 207, It. 31.

Note 1. In some phrases, custom has established a certain order, which must be observed and imitated; as, Civis Römänus, pöpülus Römänus, jus civile, oz süli-num, terrä märiyue, Pontifex maximus, majgister ejutium, tribinus militum, tribinus militum, tribinus militum consulari potestate, Jüpiter optimus maximus, ria Appia; ne quid respüblica detriment cipiat. Cic. The ablatives öpiniöne, spe, justo, solito, (see § 256, R. 9), generally precede the comparative.

Note 2. Exceptions to the foregoing principles are very numerous. These may arise (a) from emphasis; (b) from poetic license; and (c) from regard to the harmony of the sentence. The following general rule sometimes modifies nearly all the preceding.

16. The emphatic word is placed before the word or words connected with it which are not emphatic.

Nore 3. The last place is often an emphatic one, except for the verb. When the verb is neither first nor last in a proposition the word before it is emphatic. An adjective, when emphatic, commonly precedes its substantive; when not emphatic, it commonly follows it. But with the demonstrative pronouns the rule is reversed.

Note 4. The principal poetical variation in the arrangement of words consists in the separation of the adjective from its noun, and in putting together words from different parts of a proposition.

17. A sentence should not close like a hexameter verse, with a dactyl and spondee; as, Esse vidétur; nor, in general, with a monosyllable.

18. Hiātus should be avoided; that is, a word beginning with a vowel should not follow a word ending with a vowel.

 A concurrence of long words or long measures,—of short words or short measures,—of words beginning alike or ending alike,—should be avoided.

II. OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

§ 280. A compound sentence, whose clauses are united as protains and apodosis, or in which the leading clause is divided by the insertion of one or more subordinate clauses, is called a period.

1. (a.) In the former kind of period the protasis must precede the apodosis; as, Quan Pausānias samainmins de templo ilātus esset, confestim animam efflavit, when Pausanias had been carried out of the temple but just alive, he immediately expired. In a period of the latter kind the verb of the principal proposition is placed at the end, and the subordinate clauses between the parts of the leading clause; as, Pausānias, quan sēmānimis de templo ēlātus esset, confestim animam efflavit, Pausanias, when he had been carried out of the temple but just alive, immediately expired. Nep.

(b.) A sentence, such as Scipio exercitum in Africam trājēcit, ut Hannibālem ex Itāliā dēdācēret, is not periodic in its structure, but it becomes so when we

- say, Scipio, ut Hannibálem ex háliá dédacèret, exercitum in Africam trajécit. Periods in which the subordinate clause precedes with two conjunctens; as, Quum tgitur Rômam vénisset, státim impérâtirem àdiit, are made still more strictly periodic by placing first the conjunction which belongs to the whole, and then inserting the subordinate proposition; as, Itáque, quum Rômam vénisset, státim impérâtirem àdiit.
- 2. (a.) If the verbs of the leading and dependent clauses have the same abliject, or the same noun depending on them, they are commonly formed into a period; as, Antigónus, quam adversus Séleucum Lijsimáchunque danicáret, in prælio occisus est. Nep. Quem, ut barbári incendium effágisse éminus vidérunt, tölis missis interfécerunt. Id.
- (b.) So, also, when the noun which depends on the verb of the leading clause is the subject of the dependent clause; as, L. Manlio, quam dictator fuisset, M. Pomponius, tribūnus plēbis, diem dixit. Cic.
- 3. When obscurity would arise from separating the leading subject and verb by dependent words or clauses, they are often placed together at the beginning or end of the sentence; as, Latte (sunt) deinde legges, non solum quarryni suspticione considera absolverent, sed qua adeo in contrarium vertirent, ut pôpulieren éther facerent. Liv. The position of the leading verb is also often otherwise varied, from regard to emphasis, to avoid monotony, or to prevent its meeting with the verb of the last dependent clause; but clauses, when so arranged, do not constitute a period.
- 4. When one clause is interrupted by the introduction of another, the latter should be finished before the first is resumed.
- Clauses expressing a cause, a condition, a time, or a comparison, usually precede the clauses to which they relate.
 - 6. A short clause usually stands before, rather than after, a long one.

III. OF THE CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

- (1.) In connecting propositions, relatives, whether pronouns, pronominal adjectives, or adverbs, are often employed in order to avoid the too frequent recurrence of et, autem, and certain other conjunctions. Every relative may be used for this purpose instead of its corresponding demonstrative with et; as, qui for et is, qualts for et talis, quo for et eo, etc. They are used also before those conjunctions which are joined with et or acte at the beginning of a proposition; as, si, nisi, ut, quam, etc. (see § 206, [14.]; as, quod quam audivissem, quod if ricissem, quod quameis non ignòrassem, for et quam hoc, et si hoc, et quameis hoc; or quam autem hoc, etc.; and, often, also, where in English no conjunction is used, and even before other relatives; as, quod qui facit, eum égo impium pidico, i. e. et qui hoc fâcit, or, qui autem hoc fâcit. In the ablative with comparatives the relative is often used as a connective; as, Căto, quo nêmo turi virul pridentior, i. e. Cato, who was more prudent than all others.
- (2.) In propositions consisting of two members, the relative pronoun is joined grammatically either to the apodosis or to the protasis; with the former in, Qui, quam ex co quærërëtur, cur tam din rellet esse in vitā, Nihil hābeo, inquit, an di accisem senectitiem. Cic. de Sen. 6. But is more frequent with the protasis or secondary clause; as, A quo quam quærërëtur, quid maxime expediret, respondit. Cic. Off. 2, 25. When it is ti as joined with the protasis, the nominative of the demonstrative is supplied with the apodosis from another case of the relative in the protasis, as, in the preceding passage, from the ablative. But for the sake of emphasis the demonstrative may be expressed, and frequently, also, for the sake of clearness; as, Qui mos quam a postëriorbusnom esset virientas, Arvēsibus eum respeciarit. Cic. de Fin. 2, 1. The accusative is sometimes to be supplied; as, Qui (Hērāclītus) quōniam intelligi nobuit, ōmutāmus. Cic. N. D. 3, 14. When the demonstrative precedes, and is folowed by a proposition consisting of two members, the relative is attached to the prota-

sis, which is placed first, and not to the leading clause or apodosis; as, Es sussi Pompeio, quibus ille si păruisset, Cesar tantas ôpes, quantus musc hâbet, mon hâbêret. Cic. Fam. 6, 6. Nôli adversus eos me velle ducêre, cum quibus ne contra te arma ferrem, hâbum vêlepat. Nep. Att. 4.

- (3.) Where in English we use 'however' with the relative; as, He promised me many things, which, however, he did not perform, the Latins made use of the demonstrative with sed or virum, or the relative alone implying the adversative conjunction; as, multa nühi prömisti, sed en non pressitit, but not que autem or que viro que autem and que viro are used however in protases, where the relative retains its relative menning, and there is a corresponding demonstrative in the apodosis; as, Qui autem omnia bôna a se ipsis pétunt, iis nühil mülum vidēri põtest, quod nätüræ nēcessītus afférat. Cic. de Sen. 2.
- (4.) In double relative clauses, especially where the cases are different, Cicero frequently for the second relative clause substitutes the demonstrative; as, Scd lysius in mente insidibut species pulchritalinis eximia queedam, quem interes, in câque defixus, ad, etc. for et in quā. Cic. Orat. 2. And sometimes even when the cases are the same; as, Quem Philmaten vériales férunt, eumque rum Leonte disséruise queedam. Cic. Tusc. 5, 3; where et alone would have been sufficient.
- (5.) From this tendency to connect sentences by relatives arose the use of quod before certain conjunctions merely as a copulative. See § 206, (14.)
- (6). Néque or nec is much used by Latin writers instead of et and a negation, and may be so used in all cases except when the negative belongs to one particular word; see § 278, R. 9. Neque or nec is added to chim, vivo, and timen, where we cannot use 'and.' To these negative expressions a second negative is often joined, in which case nèque énim non is equivalent to nam; uon vèro non, to adque étiem, a stronger et; nec timen non, to attainen.

ANALYSIS.

- § 281. I. 1. The analysis of a complex or a compound sentence consists in d ding it into its several component propositions, and pointing out the relation to each other.
- In resolving a same ento its component clauses, the participial constructions equivalent to mauses should be mentioned, and ellipses be supplied See § 203, 4; § 274, 3; and § 257.
- In a continued discourse the connection and relation of the successive sentences also should be specified.

Rule: for the Analysis of Complex and Compound Sentences.

- (1.) State whether the sentence is complex or compound. § 201, 11, 12.
- (2.) If complex, (1) specify the principal and subordinate clauses. (2) Specty the class to which the subordinate proposition belongs, (§ 201, 7), and (3), its connective, and the class to which such connective belongs, (§ 201, 8 and 9.)
- (3.) If compound, specify the principal propositions, with their subordinates, if any they have, as in the case of complex sentences.
- II. The analysis of a proposition or simple sentence consists in distinguishing the subject from the predicate, and, in case either of them be compound, in pointing our tre simple subjects or predicates of which it is composed, and if complex, in specifying the several modifiers, whether of the essential or subordinate parts.

Rules for the Analysis of a Simple Sentence.

- Divide it into two parts—the subject and the predicate, § 20.1, 1—3
 If these are simple, the analysis is complete, but if either is compound:—
- 2. Specify the simple subjects or predicates of which the compound con sists.—If either is complex:—
- Point out the grammatical subject, and the words, phrases, etc. directly modifying it.
- 4. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct modifiers of the grammatical subject, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical subject is specified.
- 5. Point out the grammatical predicate, and the words, phrases, etc., directly modifying it.
- 6. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct mcdifiers of the grammatical predicate, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical predicate is specified.

PARSING.

III. Parsing consists in resolving a proposition into the parts of speech of which it is composed, tracing the derivation of each word, and giving the rules of formation and construction applicable to it.

Rules for Parsing.

- Name the part of speech to which each word belongs, including the subdivision in which it is found.
 - 2. If it is an inflected word:-
 - (1.) Name its root or crude form, and decline, compare, or conjugate it.
- (2.) If it is a noun or pronoun, tell its gender, number and case:—if in the nominative or in the accusative with the infinitive, tell its verb:—if in an oblique case depending on some other word, tell the word on which its case depends.
- (3.) If it is an adjective, adjective-pronoun, or participle, tell the word which it modifies.
- (4.) If it is a finite verb or an infinitive with the accusative, tell its voice, mood, tense, number, person, and subject.
 - 3. If it is a conjunction, tell its class and what it connects.
 - 4. If it is a preposition, tell the words whose relation is expressed by lt.
- If it is an adverb, tell its class and what it qualifies.
- Prove the correctness of each step of the process by quoting the definition or rule of formation or construction on which it depends.

NOTE. The words constituting a proposition are most conveniently parsed in that order in which they are arranged in analysis.

Examples of Analysis and Parsing.

1. Equus currit, The horse runs.

Analysis. This is a simple sentence: its subject is equus, its predicate is eurit, both of which are simple. See § 201, 1-3; § 202, 2; and § 203, 2.

Paring. Equas is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d dacl., § 38; nasc. gender, § 28, 1; third person, § 35, 2; its root is êqu., § 40, 10; decline it, § 40; it is in the nominative case, singular number, § 35, 1, (b.); the subject of curvit, § 209, (a.)—Curvit is a nenter verb, § 141, 1; of the 3d conjugation, § 142, 2; from curvo; its principal parts are curvo, cicurvi, cursum, curvive, § 151, 4; it is from the first root curv-; give the formations of that root, § 151, 1; it is in the active voice, § 142, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; present tense, § 146, I.; third person, § 147; singular number, § 146; agreeing with its subject-nominative êquas, § 209, (b.)

NOTE. The questions to be asked in parsing èquus are such as these, Why is èquus a noun? Why a common noun? Why of the second declension? Why musculine è tec.—In parsing currit, the questions are, Why is currit a verb? Why a neuter verb? Why of the third conjugation? Which are the principal purts of a verb? Of what does the first root of a verb consist? What parts of a verb are derived from the first root? etc. The answer in each case may

be found by consulting the etymological rules and definitions.

 2. Sævius ventis ăgitătur ingens pinus, The great pine is more violently shaken by the winds. Hor.

Analysis. This also is a simple sentence:—its subject is ingens pinns, its predicate sexius ventis agitatur; both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is pinus, the pine; this is modified by ingens, great,

§ 201, 2, § 202, 2, and § 202, 6, (3.)

The grammatical predicate is āgūtātur, is shaken; this is modified by two independent modifiers, serius, more violently, and ventis, by the winds, § 203 II. 3 Rem., § 203, I. 1, (2), and (3.)

tw. \S 209, (a.) Ingent is a qualifying adjective of quantity, \S 104, 4, and \S 205, N. 1; of the Magens is a qualifying adjective of quantity, \S 108, and \S 111; from the root ingent, \S 40, 10; (decline it like presens, \S 111, but with only i in the ablative, \S 413, Exc. 3.)—it is found in the singular number, feminine gender, \S 38, R. 4;

and nominative case, agreeing with its noun pinus, § 205.

Agitatur is an active frequentative verb, § 141, I., and § 187, II. 1; of the 1st conjugation, § 149, 2; from the first root of its primitive \$\delta g_0\$, \$187, II. 1, \$(\delta)\$, tame its principal parts in both voices, see § 151, 4; and give the conjugation of the passive voice, indicative mood, present tense, see § 156,);—it is found in the singular number, § 146; third person, § 147; agreeing with its subject-nominative pines, § 209, \$(\delta)\$.

Serius is a derivative adverb of manner, § 190, 2-4; in the comparative degree, from the positive series or seriler, which is derived from the adjective series, § 194, 1 and 2, and § 192, II. 1, and Exc. 1 and 2; modifying the verb

ăgitătur, by expressing its degree, § 277.

Ventis is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 46; from the root vent., § 40, 10; (decline it),—it is found in the plural number, § 35, 1; ablative case, modifying agitatur by denoting its means or instrument, § 247.

 Mithridates, duirum et viginti gentium rez, töttlem linguis jüra dizit, Mithridates, king of twenty-two nations, pronounced judicial decisions in as many languages. Plin.

Analysis. This also is a simple sentence; its subject is Mithridates, duarum et eiginti gentium rez, its predicate is toddem linguis jūra dixil, both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is Mithridates; this is modified directly by rex 6 202, I. (1.)

Rex is limited by gentium, § 202, I. 1, (2.)

Gentium is limited by the compound addition duarum and viginti connected

coordinately by et, § 202, III. 3.

The grammatical predicate is dixit; this is limited by jura and linguis, the former a simple, the latter a complex addition, as it is modified by totidem § 203, I. 1, (2.) and II. 1.

Parsing. Mithridates is a proper noun, § 26, 2; of the third declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 28, 1; from the root Mithridāt-, § 40, 10; genitive Mithridātis, § 73, 1; (decline it in the singular number only, § 95, (a.);—it is found in the nominative case, the subject of dixit, § 209, (a.)

Rex is a common noun—third declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 28, 1; from the root reg-, § 40, 10; genitive regis, § 78, 2; (decline it);—it is found in the singular number—the nominative case, in apposition to Mithridates, § 204.

Gentium is a common noun from gens—third declension—feminine gender, § 62; from the root gent—, § 56, I, R. 1; genitive gentis, § 77, 2 and (2.); (decline it); -it is found in the plural number-genitive case, § 83, II. 3; limiting rex subjectively, § 211 and R. 2.

Duārum is a numeral adjective, § 104, 5; of the cardinal kind, § 117; from duo, dua, duo; from the root du-; (decline it, § 118, 1,);-it is found in the plural number, § 118, 2; feminine gender, genitive case, § 26, R. 4; agreeing

with its noun gentium, § 205.

Et is a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1, connecting duarum and viginti, § 278. Viginti is a numeral adjective of the cardinal kind, indeclinable, § 118, 1;

limiting gentium, § 205.

Dixit is an active verb, § 141, I.; of the third conjugation, § 149, 2; from dico, (give the principal parts in the active voice, and its first, second, and third roots, § 150, 4, and § 171, 1;) it is formed from the second root dix, (give the formations of the second root);—it is found in the active voice, § 141, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; perfect indefinite tense, § 145, IV. and Rem.; singular number, third person, agreeing with Mithridates, § 209, (b.)

Jūra is a common noun, of the third declension, from jus, root jūr-, § 56, I. R. 1. genitive jūris, § 76, Exc. 3; nenter gender, § 66; (decline it);—it is found in the plural number, accusative case, § 40, 8; the object of dixit, § 229.

Linguis is a common noun, of the first declension, feminine gender, from lingua, root lingu-, (decline it);-found in the plural number, ablative case, after dixit. § 247.

Totidem is a demonstrative pronominal adjective, § 139, 5, (2.) and (3.); indeclinable, § 115, 4; it is in the ablative plural, feminine gender, limiting linquis, § 205.

4. Pausănus, quum semiănimis de templo elatus esset, confestim ănimam efflavit. Nep. Paus. 4.

Analysis. This is a complex sentence, § 201, 11; consisting of two mem-

pers, which are so arranged as to constitute a period, § 280, 1.

The principal proposition is, Pausănias confestim ănimam efflăvit, § 201, 5. The subordinate proposition is, quum (is) semianimis de templo élatus esset.

6 201, 6.

§ 201, 6.

The leading proposition has a simple subject, Pausānias, § 202, 2, and a complex predicate, confestim āntmam efflāvit, § 203, 3; in which efflāvit is the grammatical predicate, § 203, 2; which is modified by confestim and animum, § 203, I. 1, (2.) and (3.), and II. R. 2., and also by the adverbial clause quum sémiánimis, etc. § 201, 6 and 7, and § 203, I. 3.

The subscripting to proposition which is convected to the leading alone by

The subordinate proposition, which is connected to the leading clause by the subordinate conjunction quum, § 201, 9, has a simple subject, viz. is understood, and a complex predicate, sēmiānīmis, de templo ēlūtus esset, § 203, 3.— The grammatical predicate is ēlūtus esset, § 203, 2; which is modified by sēmiā nimis, § 203, I. 1, (1.), and de templo, § 203, I. 2, and H. Rem. 2.

Parsing. Pausanias, a Greek proper noun, § 26, 2;—1st decl., §§ 41 and 44; masc. gender, § 28, 1; root Pausani-; found in sing. num., nom. case, the subject of efflavit, § 209, (a.)

Confestim, an adv. of time § 190, 3; limiting efflavit, § 277.

Animum is a com. noun of 1st decl., fem. gender, § 41; from anima, root anim-; (decline it);-it is found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of

Efflavit, an act. verb, 1st conj., from efflo, compounded of ex and flo, § 196, 6; (give he principal parts in the act. voice and the three roots);-it is formed from the second root; (give the formations of that root); in the active voice ind. mood, perfect indefinite tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with Pausanias, § 209, (b.)

Quum is a temporal conjunction, § 198, 10; connecting the dependent to the

principal clause, § 278.

Similarimis is a predicate adj., of the 3d decl., of two terminations, § 109; (decline it);-it is in the sing. num., masc. gend., nom. case, agreeing with u understood, § 210, R. 1, (a.) De is a preposition, expressing the relation between elatus esset and templo,

§ 195.

Templo is a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gend., from templum, root templ-; (decline it); -in the sing. num., abl. case, after de, § 241.

- Elātus esset is an irregular active verb, of the third conjugation, § 179; from effero, compounded of ex and fero, § 196, 6; (see fero and compounds, § 172); (give the principal parts in both voices, and the 1st and 3d roots);-it is formed from the third root, elat-, (give the formations of that root in the passive voice); in the subjunctive mood, pluperfect tense, § 145, V.; sing. num., third person, agreeing with is understood referring to Pausanias, § 209, (b.)
- Rōmāna pūbes, sēdāto tandem pāvore, postquam ex tam turbido die sĕrēna et tranquilla lux rĕdiit, ŭbi văcuam sēdem rēgiam vīdit, etsi sătis crēdēbat patribus, qui proximi steterant, sublimem raptum procellā ; tamen, vēlut orbitatis mētu icta, mæstum alīquamdiu sīlentium obtinuit. Liv. 1, 16.

Analysis. This is a complex sentence, whose clauses constitute a period, § 280. It is composed of the following members or clauses:-

 Rōmāna pūbes [tămen] mastum ăliquamdiu silentium obtinuit. This is the eading clause. The following are dependent clauses.

velut orbitātis mētu icta,

sēdāto tandem păvore,
 postquam ex tam turbădo die sĕrēna et tranquilla lux rĕdiit,

- ŭbi văcuam sêdem regiam vidit,
- etsi sătis crēdēbat patribus,
- qui proximi stětěrant, 8. sublimem raptum prěcellā.
- Note 1. In the preceding clauses the predicates are printed in Italics.

Note 2. The connective of the 1st clause, is the adversative tamen, which is inserted on account of etsi intervening between the principal subject and predicate. The connective of the 2d clause is velut, of the 4th postquam, of the bth ubi, of the 6th etsi, followed by a clause constituting the protasis, and of the 7th qui. The 3d and 8th clauses have no connectives.

 The grammatical subject of the leading clause is pūbes, which is limited by Romana. The grammatical predicate is obtinuit, which is limited by aliquamdiu and silentium, and also either directly or indirectly by all the dependent clauses. Silentium is itself modified by mæstum.

The second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth clauses are used adverbially to denote the time and other circumstances modifying the principal predicate

silentium obtinuit, § 201, 7.

(2.) The second is a participial clause, equivalent to vělut (ea scil. pubes . prbitatis metu icta esset, \$ 274, 3, (a.)

(3.) The third clause is also participial, and is equivalent to quum tandem pavor sēdātus esset, § 257, R. 1; and hence pavore represents the subject, and sedato tandem the predicate—the former being simple, the latter complex.

(4.) The grammatical subject of the 4th clause, which is connected to the leading clause by poetquam, 4 201, 9, is lux, which is modified by serva and tranquilla.—The grammatical predicate is rediit, which is modified by postquam and ex tam turbido die, § 203, I. 1, (3.), and H. 1.

(5.) The grammatical subject of the fifth clause is ea understood.—The grammatical predicate is width which is modified by with and wacuum sedem regium, § 203, I. 1, (3.) and II. 1.

(6.) The grammatical subject of the sixth clause also is ea. Its grammatical predicate is crēdēbat, which is modified by sătis and patribus, § 203, I. (2.) and (3.), and by the 8th clause, II. 3.

(7.) The grammatical subject of the seventh clause is qui. Its grammatical

predicate is stětěrant, which is modified by proximi, § 203, I. (1.) It is an adjective clause, modifying patribus, § 201, 7 and 9.

(8.) The grammatical subject of the eighth clause, which has no connective,

§ 201, Rem., is eum, i. e. Romulum, understood. Its grammatical predicate is raptum (esse), which is modified by sublimem and procellā.

Parsing. Römāna is a patrial adjective, § 104, 10, derived from Rōma, § 128, 6, (a.) and (e.); of the 1st and 2d declensions, § 105, 2; fem. gender, sing. number, nom. case, agreeing with pūbes, § 205.

Pūbes, a collective noun, § 26, 4; 3d decl., fem. gender, § 62; from the root

pab., § 56, I. R. 6; genitive pable, § 73, 1; (decline it);—found in the nom, sing, the subject of obtinuit, § 209, (a.)

Tamen, an adversative conjunction, § 198, 9, relating to ets in the 6th clause.

Mastum, a qualifying adj., § 205, N. 1; of the 1st and 2d declensions, neut

gender, sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with silentium.

Aliquamdiu, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; compounded of aliquis and diu

§ 193, 6; and limiting obtinuit, § 277.

Silentium, a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gender, § 46; sing. number, acc. case

the object of obtinuit, § 229.

Obtinuit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., § 149, 2; from obtineo, compounded of ob and teneo, see § 168; (give the principal parts in the act. voice, and the formations of the 2d root, \$ 157 at the end); -found in the active voice, ind.

formations of the 2a root, § 107 as the end);—found in the active voice, inc. mood, perf, indef, tense, sing, num., 3d person, agreeing with pibles, § 209, (b.) Vilut for vilut si, an adverb, compounded of ret and ut, § 193, 10; modifying icta, and obtanusset understood, (as they would have done if, etc.) Orbitātis, an abstract noun, § 26, 5; from the primitive orbits, § 101, 1 and 2; 3d deel, ferm, gender, § 62; from the root orbitātis—, § 56, 1, and R, 1; (decline it);—found in the sing, num., subjective gen. case, limiting midu, § 211.

Mětu, an abstract noun, 4th decl., masc. gen., § 87; sing. num., abl. case, § 247.

Icta, a perf. part. pass., from the active verb ico, of the 3d conj. (give the principal parts in both voices, and decline the participle); -found in the fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with pubes, § 205.

Sedato, a perfect pass. part. from the active verb sedo, of the 1st conj., § 149, 2; (give the principal parts in both voices, § 151, 4; and decline it, R. 2.); -found in the masc gender, sing num., abl. case, agreeing with pavore, § 205.

Tindem, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; modifying sedato, § 277.

Particle of the state of the st number, abl. case, absolute with sedato, § 257.

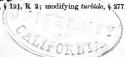
Postquam, an adverb of time, compounded of post and quam, § 193, 10; mod-

ifying rediit, and connecting the 1st and 4th clauses, § 201, 9.

Ex, a preposition, § 195, R. 2.

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Tum, an adverb of degree, § 191, R 2; modifying turbido, § 277.



Turbido, an adjective, agreeing with die.

Die, a common noun, 5th decl., masc. gender, § 90, Exc. 1.; sing. number abl. case, after the prep. ex, § 241.

Serena, an adj., 1st and 2d decls., fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with lux, § 205.

Et, a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1; connecting serena and tranquilla, § 278.

Tranquilla, like sĕrēna.

Lux, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root luc-, § 56, I.,

and R. 2; genitive lūcis, § 78, 2.

Rědůt an irregular neuter verb, of the 4th conj., § 176; from rědeo, compounded of eo, § 182, and the inseparable prep. red, § 196, (b.), 3; (give its prin-ipal parts);—found in the ind. mood., perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., greeing with lux, § 209, (b.)

Ubi, an adverb of time, and like postquam, a connective, § 201, 9; and modi-

fying vidit, § 277.

Văcuam, an adj., qualifying sēdem. Sēdem, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root sēd-, § 56, I., R. 6: genitive sēdis, § 73, 1: (decline it):—found in the sing, num., acc. case. the object of the transitive verb vidit, § 229.

Regiam, a denominative adj., § 128, I., 2, (a.); from the primitive rex, agree-

ing with sedem.

Vidit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., (give its principal parts in the active voice, and the formations of the 2d root); found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with ea, i. e. pubes, under-

Etsi, a concessive conjunction, § 198, 4; corresponding to the correlative adversative conj. timen, § 198, 4, R. and 9.

Satis, an adverb of degree, § 191, III., and R. 2; modifying crēdēbat, § 27 :. Crédebat, an act. verb, § 141, I.; 3d conj., (give the principal parts in the active voice and the formations of the 1st root);—found in the act. voice, ind. mood, imperfect tense, sing. num., 3d person, agreeing with ea, scil. pubes, understood.

Patribus, a common noun, § 26, 3; 3d decl., from the root patr-, § 56, II., R. 3; gen. patris, § 71; masc. gender, § 28, 1; plur. num., dat. case, depending

on credebat, § 223, R. 2.

Qui, the subject of the 7th clause, is a relative pronoun, § 136; masc. gender, plur. num., agreeing with its antecedent patribus, § 206, R. 19, (a.); and is nominative to steterant, \ 209, (a.)

Proximi, an adj. of the superlative degree, § 126, 1, (compare it); of the 1st and 2d decls., masc. gen., plur. num., nom. case, agreeing with qui, § 205, § 210, R. 1, (a.) and R. 3, (2.)

Stětěrant, a neuter verb, 1st conj., irregular in its 2d root, § 165; (give its principal parts, and the formations of the 2d root);-found in the act. voice, ind. mood, plup. tense, § 145, V.; 3d person plural, agreeing with its subject qui, § 209, (b.)

Sublimem, an adj., of the 3d decl., and two terminations, § 109; masc. gen. ring. num., acc. case, agreeing with eum, (i. e. Romilum,) understood and

modifying also raptum esse, § 205, R. 15.

Raptum (esse), an act. verb, 3d conj.; (give the principal parts in both voices and the formations of the 3d root in the passive voice)—found in the pass. voice, inf. mood, perf. tense; but, following the imperfect, it has the meaning of a pluperfect, § 268, 2, and § 145, V.; depending on crédèbat, § 272.

**Irôcellā*, a corr. noun, 1st decl., fem. gen., sing. num., abl. case, § 247.

PROSODY.

§ 282. Prosody treats of the quantity of syllables, and the laws of versification.

QUANTITY.

- The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it. Cf. § 13.
 - 2. A syllable is either short, long, or common.
- (a.) The time occupied in pronouncing a short syllable is called a mora of time.
- (b.) A long syllable requires two moræ or double the time occupied in pronouncing a short one; as, ămārĕ.
- (c.) A common syllable is one which, in poetry, may be made either long or short; as the middle syllable of tenellræ.
- The quantity of a syllable is either natural or accidental; natural, when it depends on the nature of its vowel; accidental, when it depends on its position.

Thus the e in resisto is short by nature; while in restiti it is long by its position, since it is followed by two consonants: § 283, IV. On the contrary, the e in define is naturally long, but in deerro it is made short by being placed before a vowel: § 283, I.

4. The quantity of syllables is determined either by certain established rules, or by the authority of the poets.

Thus it is poetic usage alone that determines the quantity of the first syllables of the following words, viz. māder, frāder, prāvus, dīco, dūco; pāder, āvus, cādo, māneo, grāvis, etc.; and hence the quantity of such syllables can be ascertained by practice only or by consulting the gradus or lexicon.

The rules of quantity are either general or special. The former apply alike to all the syllables of a word, the latter to particular syllables.

GENERAL RULES.

§ 283. I. (a.) A vowel before another vowel, or a diphthong, is short; as, e in meus, i in patrix. Thus,

Conscia mens recti fāmæ mendācia rīdet. Ovid. F. 4, 311. Ipse ētīam eximīæ laudis succensus āmōre. Virg. A. 7, 496.

(b.) So also when h comes between the vowels, since h is accounted only a breathing; as, n(hil): (see § 2, 6.) Thus,

De nihilo nihil, in nihilum nil posse reverti. Pers. 4, 84.

Exc. 1. (a.) Fig has the i long, except in fit and when followed by er: as fiunt, fiblam. Thus,

Omnia jam fiant, fičri quæ posse něgābam. Ovid. Tr. 1, 8, 7.

(b.) It is sometimes found long even before er; as, fiëret. Ter.; fiëri. Plaut and, on the contrary, Prudentius has fiö with i short.

Exc. 2. (a.) E is long in the termination of the genitive and dative of the fifth declension, when preceded and followed by i; as, făcië. Thus,

Non rădii solis, neque lucida tela diei. Lucr. 1, 148.

(b.) In sper, rer, and fidei, e is short.

Note. In Lucretius, the e of rei is, in a few cases, long, and that of fides is lengthened once in Lucretius and once in a line of Ennius.

Exc. 3. (a.) A is long in the penult of old genitives in at of the first declension; as, aulāi, pictāi. Cf. § 43, 1.

(b.) A and e are also long in proper names in atus, etus, or eta; as, Cărus Pompērus, Aquilê'a; and in the adjectives Grārus and Vētus. Thus,

Æthěrium sensum, atque aurāř simplīcis ignem. Virg. A. 6, 747. Accīpe, Pompēř, děductum carmen ab illo. Ovid. Pont. 4, 1, 1. Necuon cum Věnětis Aquilěřa perfürit armis. Sil. 8, 606.

Exc. 4. (a.) I is common in genitives in ius; as, ūntus, illius Thus,

Illius et nītīdo stillent unguenta cāpillo. Tibull, 1, 7, 51. Illīus pūro dēstillent tempŏra nardo. Id. 2, 2, 7.

(b.) But i in the genitive of alter is commonly short; and in that of alius it is always long.

Exc. 5. The first vowel of ēheu is long; that of Dīāna, io, and öhe. is common.

Exc. 6. Greek words retain their original quantities, and hence, in many *Greek* words, a vowel is long, though immediately followed by another yowel: as.

āēr, Achāta, Achēlōvs, dia, ēos, Lāertes, and Greek words having in the original a long e or o (n or a.) See also § 293, 3.

(1.) Words which, in Greek, are written with ei (u) before a vowel, and in Latin with a single e or i, have the e or i long; as, Ænčas, Alexandria, Cassiopa, Clio, Dārīus, ēlēgia, Gūlatēa, Mēdēa, Mausolēvm, Pēnēlopēa, Thāta, Alrides. Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the e long; as, Cýthérēus, Pēlopēus; and the e remains long when et is restored; as, Pelopēus.

Exc. Acâdêmia, chôrea, Mâlea, plâtea, and some patronymics and patrials in ets; as, Nêreis, have the penult common.

(2.) Greek genitives in eos, and accusatives in ea, from nominatives in eus, generally shorten the e; as, Orphôco, Orphôca;—but the e is sometimes lengthened by the lonic dialect; as, Céphôco, Iliônéa;

(3.) Greek words in ais, ois, aius, eius, oius, aon, and ion, generally lengthen the first vowel; as, Nāis, Minois, Grānus, Nērētus, Minoius, Machāon, Izion. But Thēbūis, Simois, Pháon, Deucalion, Pygmālion, and many others, shorten the former vowel.

Note 1. Greek words in aon and ion, with o short in the genitive, have the penult long; but with o long in the genitive, they have it short; as, Amythāen donis; Deucollon, Jonis.

§ 283.

NOTE 2. In Greek proper names in eus (gen. eos), as Orpheus, the eu in the nominative is always a diphthong in the original, and, with very few exceptions, in the Latin poets.

II. A diphthong is long; as, ᾱurum, f̄ᾱnus, Ēub̄ᾱa, Pompēīus, Orphēū. Thus,

Infernîque lăcus, Ēāāque insŭla Circæ. Virg. A. 3, 386.

Thēsāuros ignōtum argenti pondus et āuri. Id. A. 1, 359.

Harpviāgue cŏlunt āliā, Phīnēja postquam. Id. A. 3, 212.

Exc. 1. Præ, in composition, is short before a vowel; as, præustus, præustus. Thus,

Nec tötä tämen ille prior praeunte carina. Virg. A. 5, 186.

In Statius, and Sidonius Apollinaris, it is found long.

Exc. 2. A diphthong at the end of a word, when the next word begins with a vowel, is sometimes made short; as,

Insŭlæ Ičnio in magno, quas dīra Celæno. Virg. A. 3, 211.

III. A syllable formed by contraction is long; as, ālius for aliius; cōgo for còōgo; nil for nihil; jūnior for jūvēnior. Thus, Tityre cōge pēcus, tu post cārecta latēbas. Virg. E. 3, 20.

IV. A vowel naturally short, before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter j, is long by position; as, $\bar{a}rma$, $b\bar{e}llum$, $\bar{a}xis$, $g\bar{a}za$, $m\bar{a}jor$. Thus,

Pāscāre öpörtet öves dēdūctum dieēre cārmen. Virg. E. 6, 5. Nēc migrās vincet cörģlos ; nēc laurea Pheebi. Id. E. 7, 64. At nobis, Paz alma, vēni, spicamque tēnēto. Tībull. 1, 10, 67. Rāra jūvant: primis sie mājor grātia pōmis. Mart. 4, 29, 3.

Note 1. A vowel (other than i) before j is in reality lengthened by forming a diphthong with it, since i and j are in fact but one letter. Thus mujor is equivalent to mui-or, which would be pronounced mu'-yor. See § 9, 1.

Exc. 1. The compounds of $j\bar{u}gum$ have i short before j; as, $b\bar{v}j\bar{u}gus$, $qu\bar{u}dr\bar{v}j\bar{u}gus$. Thus,

Interea bijūgis infert se Lūcagus albis. Virg. A. 10, 575.

REMARK. The vowel is long by position, when either one or both of the consonants is in the same word with it; but when both stand at the beginning of the following word, the vowel is either long or short; as,

Tolle mözas; sempēr nācult differre pārātis. Lucan. 1, 281. Ferte cīti ferrūm; dāte tēlā; scandīte mūros. Virg. A. 9, 37. Ne tāmen ignörēt, quæ sīt sententiā scripto. Ovid.

Note 2. A short vowel at the end of a word, before an initial double consonant or j in the following word, is not lengthened.

NOTE 3. In the comic poets a vowel frequently remains short though followed by two consonants, especially if only one of them is in the same word.

Exc. 2 A vowel naturally short, before a mute followed by a liquid, is common; as, ägris, phārētra, vòlūcris, pŏplītes, cŏchlea. Thus,

Et prīmo sīmilis võlüeri, mox vēra võlüeris. Ovid. M. 13. 607. Nātum ante öra pātris, patrem qui obtruncat ad āras. Virg. A. 2, 663. Nox tēribēras profert, Phoebus fügat inde tēribras. Ovid.

REM. 1. If the vowel before a mute and liquid is naturally long, it continues so; as, sālūbris, ambūlācrum.

REM. 2. In compound words, of which the former part ends with a mute, and the latter begins with a liquid, a short wowel before the mute is made long by position; as, ablue, observe, subleve, quamberem.

REM. 3. A mute and liquid at the beginning of a word seldom lengthen the short vowel of the preceding word, except in the arsis of a foot; as,

Terrasquē tractusque măris cœlumque profundum. Virg. E. 4, 51.

Rem. 4. In Latin words, only the liquids l and r following a mute render the preceding short vowel common; but, in words of Greek origin, m and \vec{n} after a mute have the same effect, as in Temessa, Proc.e, Cycnus.

SPECIAL RULES.

FIRST AND MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

I. DERIVATIVE WORDS.

§ 284. Derivative words retain the quantity of their primitives; as,

by conjugation, āmo, āmat, āmābat, āmātus, etc.; by declension, āmor, āmōri, āmōri, āmōribus, etc.; so, āmlmal, āmlmatus, from āmlma; gēmēbandus, from gēmēre; fāmilia, from fāmūlus; māternus, from mūter; propinquus, from prope.

Note 1. Lār, pār, sāl, and pēs in declension shorten the vowel of the nominative; as, sālis, pēdis, etc.

NOTE 2. The vowel of the primitive is sometimes lengthened or shortened in the derivative by the addition or removal of a consonant.

REM. 1. Derivatives from increasing nouns of the second or third declension agree in quantity with the increment of their primitives

puěritia, from puěri; virgineus, from virginis; sălūber, from sălūtis.

Rem. 2. In verbs, the vowels of the derived tenses and of derivative words agree in quantity with the verbal root from which they are formed; as,

movēbam, movēbo, moveam, movērem, move, movēre, movens, movendus, from mot, the root of the present, with oʻshort;—movēram, movērim, movissem, movēro, movisse, from mot, the root of the perfect, with oʻshort; motivas and motus;—moto, motio, motior, and motus, sis, from mot, the root of the supine, with oʻsho long.

REM. 3. (a.) Solitum and solitum from soleo and volvo have the first syllable thort, as if from soluo, voluo. So, from gigno come gēnui, gēnitum, as if ean gēno, and potui, from potis sum (possum).

(b.) The a in da, imperative of do, is long, though short in other parts of the verb. See § 294, 2.

(c.) The o in posui and positum is short, though long in pono.

Exc. 1. Perfects and supines of two syllables have the first syllable long, even when that of the present is short; as,

vēni, vīdi, fēci, from vēnio, vīdeo, făcio; cāsum, motum, vīsum, from cădo, moveo, video.

Noie 3. Such perfects are supposed to have been formed either by the contraction of reduplicated syllables, as věmo, perf. věvěni, by syncope věčni, by crasis vēni, or by the omission of a consonant, as video, perf. vidsi, by sync pe vieli, the vowel retaining the quantity which it had by position.

Note 4. The long vowel of dissyllabic supines probably arose in like manner from syncope and contraction; as, video, vidsum, by syncope visum; moveo,

movitum, by syncope moitum, by contraction motum.

- (1.) (a.) These seven perfects have the first syllable short: -bibi; dědi, fidi, (from findo), scidi, stěti, stiti, tili. So also perculi, from percello.
 - (6.) The first syllable is also short before a vowel (§ 283, I.); as, rūi.
- (2.) (a.) These ten supines have the first syllable short:—clum, (irom cieo), dătum, itum, litum, quitum, rătum, rutum, sătum, situm, and statum.
 - (b.) So, also, had the obsolete fătum, from făŏ, whence comes fătūrus.

Exc. 2. (a.) Reduplicated polysyllabic perfects have the first two syllables short; as.

cěcidi, cěcini, tětigi, didici, from cădo, căno, tango, and disco.

(b.) The second syllable of reduplicated perfects is sometimes made long by position; as, momordi, téténdi.— Cécidi from cœdo, and pépédi from pédo, retaining the quantity of their first root also have the second syllable long.

Exc. 3. Desiderative verbs in urio have the u short, though, in the third root of the verbs from which they are formed, it is long; as, canāturio from cænātū, the third root of cæno. So parturio, ēsurio, nupturio.

Exc. 4. Frequentative verbs, formed from the third root of verbs of the first conjugation, have the i short; as, clamito, volito. See § 187, II. 1.

Exc. 5. A few other derivatives deviate from the quantity of their primitives.

1. Some have a long vowel from a short one in the primitive Such are,

Dēni, from děcem. Fomes and from Fomentum, foveo. Hūmānus, from homo. Laterna, from lateo, Litera from lino. Lex (legis), from lego.

Mōbilis, from mŏveo. Persona, from persono. Rēgula and) from Rex (rēgis), rego. Sēcius, from secus. Sēdes, from sědeo. Sēmen, from sĕro.

Stipendium, from stips . (stipis). Suspīcio, onis, from sus picor. Tēgula, from těgo.

Some have a short vowel from a long one in the primitive Such are,

Dicax, from dico. Dux (ducis), from duco. Fides, from fido. Labo, from labor, dep. v. odium, from odi. Lucerna, from luceo.

Mŏlestus, from mōles. Năto, from nātu. sup. Noto, from notu. sup. Quăsillus, from qualus. Săgax, from sāgio. Sŏpor, from sŏpio. Vadum, from vado. Věco, from vex (vēcis.) Note 1. Discrtus comes regularly (by syncope) from dissertus, the prefix dis being short, § 299, 1. Cf. dirimo and diribeo, where s is changed to r. See § 196, (b.) 2.

NOTE 2. Some other words might, perhaps, with propriety be added to these lists; but, in regard to the derivation of most of them, grammarians are not entirely agreed.

REMARK 1. Some of these irregularities seem to have arisen from the influence of syncope and crasis. Thus mobilis may have been movibilis; motum, movitum, etc.

REM. 2. Sometimes the vowel in the derived word being naturally short, is restored to its proper quantity by removing one of the consonants which, in the primitive, made it long by position; as, nāc, nācās. So, when the vowel of the primitive is naturally long, but has been made short before another vowel, it is sometimes restored to its original quantity by the insertion of a consonant; as, hibernus, from hiems.

REM. 3. The first syllable in liquidus is supposed to be common, as coming either from liquid or liquid; as,

Crassaque conveniant liquidis, et liquida crassis. Lucr. 4, 1255.

II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 285. 1. Compound words retain the quantity of the words which compose them; as,

dēfēr, of dē and fēro; adoro, of ad and oro. So abbrior, ambreo, circumēo, comēdo, ēnītor, produco, suborno.

2. The change of a vowel or a diphthong in forming the compound does not alter its quantity; as,

concido, from cádo; concido, from cædo; èrigo, from rego; recludo, from claudo; iniquus, from equus.

Exc. 1. A long syllable in the simple word becomes short in the following compounds:—agnitus and cognitus, from notus; dejero and pejero, from jaro; hodde, from hot die: nihitum and nihil, from hilum; causidicus, and other compounds ending in dicus, from dico.

Exc. 2. Imbēcillus, from bācillum, has the second syllable long. The participle ambitus has the penult long from itum, but the nouns ambitus and ambitio follow the rule.

Exc. 3. Innüba, prōnūba, and subnūba, from nūbo, have u short; but in con-

nubium, it is common.
Exc. 4. O final, in the compounds of do and sto, is common, though long in

Note 1. Prepositions of one syllable, which end in a vowel, are long (§ 294. (a.); those which end in a single consonant are short (§ 299, 1.)—Trā from trans is long; as trādo trādos.

trans is long; as, trādo, trādo.

Exc. 5. Pro, in the following compounds, is short:—prôfānus, prôfāri,
pròficto, prôfestus, prôficisor, prôfiteor, prôfūgio, prôfūgus, prôcella, prô
fundus, prônepos, prôneptis, and prôtereus. It is common in procāro, profundo
propāgo, propello, and propino.—Respecting pra in composition before a voca-

see § 283, II. Exc. 1.

REM. 1. The Greek preposition pro (before) is short; as, prophéta. In produx, propha, and propha, it is common.

REM. 2. The inseparable prepositions di (for dis) and se are long; as,

diduco, separo. Respecting disertus, see § 284, Exc. 5, 2, N. 1.

the simple verbs. § 294, (a.)

REM. 3. (a.) The inseparable preposition re or red is short; as, rěmitto, rěfěro, rědůmo.

(b.) Re is sometimes lengthened in religio, reliquiæ, reliquiæ, repērit, retülit, repālit, retülit, relicit, redücère, where some editors double the consonant following re Cl. § 307, 2. In the impersonal verb rēfert, re is long, as coming from real perion of the religion of the reli

REM. 4. A ending the former part of a compound word, is long the other vowels are short; as,

mālo, quūpropter, trādo, (traus do); mēfas, valēdīco, hujuscēmodī; biceps, trīdens, emutpotens, signifīco; hodie, quamdoquidem, philosophus; dācenti, locāples, Trōjūzēmz, Polydorus, Eurjpjilus, Thrāsībūlus.

Exc. 1. A. A is snort in quasi, eadem, when not an ablative, and in some Greek compounds; as, catapulta, hexameter.

Exc. 2. E. E is long in crēdo, nēmo, nēquam, nēquāquam, nēquidquam, nē quis, nēquiltu; mēmet, mēcum, tēcum, sēcum, sēse, vēcors, vēsūnus, vēnēficus, and vēdlitet;—also in words compounded with se for sez or sēm; as, sēdēcim, sēmestris, sēmodius; but in selibra it is found short in Martial.

NOTE 2. (a.) The first e in videlicet, as in vide, is sometimes made short. See § 295, Exc. 3.

(b.) E is common in some verbs compounded with făcio; as, liquefăcio, pătefăcio, rărefăcio, tăbefăcio, těpefăcio.

Exc. 3. 1. (1.) I is long in those compounds in which the first part is declined, (§ 296.) as, quidam, quivis, qualibet, quantivis, quanticumque, tantidem, uniculque, etdem, republikace, utrique.

(2.) I is also long in those compounds which may be separated without altering the sense, (§296;) as, liddinagister, siquis, agricultura.

(8.) I, ending the former part of a compound word, is sometimes made long by contraction; as, tibicen for tibiteen, from tibia and cano. See § 283, III.

(4.) I is long in bigae, quadrigae, ilicet, scilicet.

(5.) In idem, when masculine, i is long; but when neuter, it is short. The solubly and utroftique, the second in ibidem, and the first in nimirum, are long. In abicumque, as in ibid, i is common.

(6.) Compounds of dies have the final i of the former part long; as, biduum, triduum, méridies, quotidie, quotidianus, pridie, postridie.

NOTE 3. In Greek words, i, ending the former part of a compound, is short; as, Cullimackus; unless it comes from the diphthong ei (u), or is made long or common by position.

Exc. 4. 0. (1.) In compounds, the final o of contro, intro, retro, and quando except quandoquidem,) is long; as, controversia, introduco, retrocedo, quandoque. O is long also in diloqui (-quin), and utroque.

(2.) D'is long in the compounds of quō and eo; as, quōmōdo, quōcumque, quōnmn, quōlbet, quōminus, quōcirca, quōris, quōque (i. e. et quo); eōdem, eōne; but in the conjunction quōque, it is short.

(3.) Greek words which are written with an omega (ω) have the o long; as, qeōmetra, M inōtaurus, lágōpus.

Exc. 5 U. Uis long in Jupiter (Jovis pater), and judico (jus dico).

III. INCREMENT OF NOUNS.

§ 286. 1. A noun is said to *increase*, when, in any of its cases, it has more syllables than in the nominative singular; as, pax, pācis; sermo, sermōnis. The number of increments in any case of a noun is equal to that of its a iditional syllables.

 Nouns in general have but one increment in the singular, but ther, supellex, compounds of c\u00fcput ending in ps, and sometimes j\u00e9cur, have two increments; as,

tter, i-tin-ĕ-ris; săpellex, să-pel-lec-ti-lis; anceps, an-cip-i-tis; jĕcur, jĕ-ku 5-ris.

REMARK. The double increase of iter, etc., in the singular number arises from their coming from obsolete nominatives, containing a syllable more than those now in use; as, itner, etc.

3. The dative and ablative plural of the third declension have one increment more than the genitive singular; as,

rex, Gen. rē-gis, D. and Ab. rēg-i-bus. sermo, —— ser-mō-nis, —— ser-mōn-i-bus. tter. —— i-tīn-ē-ris. —— it-tī-nēr-i-bus.

4. The last syllable of a word is never considered as the increment. If a word has but one increment, it is the penult; if two, the antepenult is called the first, and the penult the second; and if three, the syllable before the antepenult is called the first, the antepenult the second, and the penult the third increment; as,

1 1 2 3 1 2 3 ser-mo, ser-mō-nis, ser-mōn-i-bus; i-ter, i-tin-ē-ris, it-i-nēr-i-bus.

5. In the third declension, the quantity of the first increment is the same in all the other cases as in the genitive singular; as,

sermōnis, sermōni, sermōnem, sermōne, sermōnes, sermōnum, sermōnībus. Bōbus, or būbus, from bos, bōvis, is lengthened by contraction from bovibus.

Note. As adjectives and participles are declined like nouns, the same rules of increment apply to all of them; and so also to pronouns.

INCREMENTS OF THE SINGULAR NUMBER.

OF THE FIRST, FOURTH, AND FIFTH DECLENSIONS.

§ 287. 1. When nouns of the first, fourth, and fifth declensions increase in the singular number, the increment consists of a vowel before the final vowel, and its quantity is determined by the first general rule with its exceptions, § 283, I.

Thus, aura, gen. aurāi, § 283, I. Exc. 8, (a.): fructus, dat. fructui, § 283, I. (a.): dies, gen. diei, § 283, I. Exc. 2, (a.)

ENCREMENTS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.

2. The increments of the second declension in the singular number are short; as,

gěner, gěněri; sătur, sături; těněr, těněri; vir, viri. Thus,

Ne, puĕri, ne tanta ănimis assuescite bella. Virg. A. 6, 833. Monstra sinunt; gĕnĕros externis affŏre ab ōris. Id. A. 7, 270.

Exc. The increment of *Iber* and *Celtiber* is long. For that of genitives in ins see § 283, Exc. 4.

INCREMENTS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

3. The increments of the third declension and singular number in a and o are long; those in e, i, u, and y, are short; as,

ānimal, ānimālis; audaz, audācis; sermo, sermonis; fēroz, fērocis; opus, operis; celer, celeris; miles, militis; supplez, supplicis; murmur, murmuris, duz, ducis; chlāmys, chlomydis; Styz, Styz, Stysis. Thus,

Pronăque eum spectent ănimălia cetera terram. Ovid. M. 1, 84. Haec tum multiplici pôpilos sermône replebat. Virg. A. 4, 189. Incumbent genêris lapsi sarcire ruinas. Id. G. 4, 218. Quălem yirgineo dêmessum politic florem. Id. A. 11, 68. Adaptee, reprisei ceciderunt murmăris aurse. Id. E. 9, 58.

Exceptions in Increments in A.

- 1. (a.) Masculines in al and ar (except Car and Nar) increase short; as, Annībāl, Annībālis; Amilcar, Amilcāris.
- (b.) Par and its compounds, and the following—ănas, mas, vas (vădis), bac-car, hēpar, jūbar, lar, nectar, and sal—also increase short.
- A, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as, daps, dăpis; Arabs, Arăbis.
- Greek nouns in a and as (ădis, ănis, or ătis) increase short; as, lampas, lampădis; Mělas, Mělānis, poēma, poëmātis.
- 4. The following in ax increase short:—dbax, anthrax, Arctophylax, Atax, Arax, climax, colax, corax, and nycticorax, dropax, fax, harpax, panax, smilax, and styrax.—The increment of Syphax is doubtful.

Exceptions in Increments in O.

1. O, in the increment of neuter nouns, is short; as,

marmor, marmorts; corpus, corpōris; èbur, èbōris. But os (the mouth), and the neuter of comparatives, like their masculine and feminine, increase long. The increment of àdor is common.

O is short in the increment of Greek nouns in o or on, which, in the oblique cases, have omicron, but long in those which have omiga; as,

Aēdon, Aēdonis; Agamemnon, Agamemnonis:—Plato, Platonis; Sinon, Sinonis; Sicyon, Sicyonis. Sidon, Orion, and Ægæon, have the increment common.

3. (a.) In the increment of gentile nouns in o or on, whether Greek or barbaric, o is generally short; as,

Műcédo, Műcedőnis. So, Amazŏnes, Aónes, Myrmidőnes, Santónes, Saxónes, Senónes, Teutónes, etc.

- (b.) But the following have o long:—Eburônes, Lacônes, lones, Nasamônes, Suessônes (or -iônes), Vetlônes, Burgundiônes. Britones has the o common.
- Greek nouns in or increase short; as, Hector, Hectoris; rhētor, rhētoris; Agēnor, Agēnoris.
- Compounds of pus, (ποῦς), as tripus, pölÿpus, Œdipus, and also arbor, mēmor, bos, compos, impos, and lèpus, increase short.
- O, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as,

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scrobs, scröbis; inops, inopis; Dölöpes. But it is long in the increment of ecrops, Cyclops, and hydrops.

7. The increment of Allobrox, Cappadox, and pracox, is also short.

Exceptions in Increments in E.

- Nouns in en, enis (except Hymen), lengthen their increment as, Stren. Strenis. So, Anienis, Nerienis, from Anio and Nerio, or rather from the obsolete Anien and Nerienes.
- Hæres, lòcăples, mansues, merces, and quies—also Iber, ver, lex, rex, ālec or ālex (hāl-) narthex and vervex—plebs and seps—increase long.
- Greek nouns in es and er (except aër and æther) increase long;
 as, magnes, magnētis; crāter, crāteris.

Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. Nouns and adjectives in ix, increase long; as, victrix, victricis fēli: fēlicis.

Exc. Călix, Cilix, coxendix, filix, fornix, hystrix, lărix, nix, pix, sălix, strix and rarely sandix or sandyx, increase short.

 Vibex and the following nouns in is increase long:—dis, glis, lis, vis, Nēsis, Quiris, and Samnis. The increment of Psōphis is common.

 Greek nouns, whose genitive is in inis increase long; as, delphin, delphinis; Sălâmis, Sălâminis.

Exceptions in Increments in U.

1. Genitives in udis, uris, and utis, from nominatives in us, have the penult long; as,

pālus, pālūdis; tellus, tellūris; virtus, virtūtis. But intercus, Ligus and pēcus

pecudis, increase short.

2. Fur, frux, (obs.), lux, and Pollux, increase long.

Exceptions in Increments in Y.

 Greek nouns whose genitive is in ynis, increase long; as, Trāchyn, Trāchÿnis.

2. The increment of bombyx, Ceyx, gryps, and mormyr, is long; that of Bebrux and sandyx is common.

INCREMENTS OF THE PLURAL NUMBER.

§ 288. 1. A noun in the plural number is said to increase, when, in any case, it has more syllables than in the ablative singular.

REMARK. When the ablative singular is wanting; or its place is supplied by a form derived from a different root, an ablative may, for this purpose, be assumed, by annexing the proper termination to the root of the plural.

 When a noun increases in the plural number, its penult is called the plural increment; as, sa in mūsārum, no in dominorum, n in rāpium and rāpibus. § 289, 290. PROSODY.—QUANTITY—INCREMENT OF VERBS. 328

8. In plural increments, a, e, and o, are long, i and u are short as.

b
čnārum,
 ănīmābus, rērum, rēbus, gēnēr
ōrum, ambūbus; sermōnībus, lǎcūbus Thus,

Appla, longārum, těritur, rēgina viārum. Stat. 8. 2, 2, 12. Sunt laerýmæ rērum, et mentem mortālia tangunt. Virg. A. 1, 462. Atque ālli, quörum cömædia prisca virörum est. Hor. S. 1, 4, 2. Portibus ēgrēdior, ventiaque fērentībus usus. Ovid.

IV. INCREMENT OF VERBS.

- § 289. 1. A verb is said to increase, when, in any of its parts, it has more syllables than in the second person singular of the present indicative active; as, das, dā-tis; dõces, dõ-c-mus.
- 2. The number of increments in any part of a verb is equal to that of its additional syllables. In verbs, as in nouns, the last syllable is never considered the increment. If a verb has but one increment, it is the penult; and this first increment, through all the variations of the verb, except in reduplicated tenses, continues equally distant from the first syllable. The remaining increments are numbered successively from the first; as,

ă-mas,	mŏ-nes,	an-dis,
1	1	1
ă-mā-mus,	mŏ-nē-tur, *	au-dī-tis,
1 2	1 2	1 2
ăm-ā-bā-mus,	mŏn-ē-rē-tur,	au-di-ē-bas,
1 2 3	1 2 3	1234
ăm-ā-vě-rā-mus.	mŏn-ë-bĭm-1-ni.	au-di-ē-bām-I-ni.

- 3. A verb in the active voice may have three increments; in the passive, it may have four.
- 4. In determining the increments of deponent verbs, an active voice, formed from the same root, may be supposed.

Thus the increments of læ-tā-tur, læt-ā-bā-tur, etc., are reckoned from the supposed verb læto, lætas.

§ **290.** In the increments of verbs, a, e, and o, are long; i and u are short; as,

ămāre, monêre, făcitote, volumus, regebamini. Thus,

Et cantêre păres, et respondêre părăti. Virg. E. 7, 5. Sie ēquidem dacebam animo, rébarque futurum. Id. A. 6, 690. Cumque lêqui păterit, matrem facticle saliatet. Ovid, M. 9, 378. Scinditur incertum studis în contraria vulgus. Virg. A. 2, 39. Nos numerus sămus, et friges consumere nati. Hor. Ep. 1, 2, 27.

(a.) Exceptions in Increments in A.

The first increment of do is short; as, dămus, dăbāmus, dăret, dăurus, circumdăre, circumdăbāmus.

(b.) Exceptions in Increments in E.

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1. E before r is short in the first increment of all the present and imperfect tenses of the third conjugation, and in the second increment in beris and bere: as.

rēgēre (infin. and imperat.), rēgēris or rēgēre (pres. ind. pass.), rēgērem and rēgērer (imp. subj.); anabēris, anabēre; monēbēris, monēbēre.

Note 1. In vělim, vělis, etc., from võlo, (second person, regularly võlis, by syncope and contraction vis), § is not an increment, but represents the root vowel ô, and is therefore short; § 284, and § 178, 1.

2. E is short before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them; as,

ămāvēram, ămārērat, ămāvērim, monuerimus, rexero, audīvēritis.

NOTE 2. In verbs which have been shortened by syncope or otherwise, e before r retains its original quantity; as, fleram, for fleveram.

For the short e before runt, in the perfect indicative, as, stětěrunt, see Systole, § 307.

(c.) Exceptions in Increments in I.

I before v or s, in tenses formed from the second root, is long;

pětivi, audivi, quæsivit, divisit, audivimus, divisimus, audivěram.

 I is long, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, in the final syllable of the third root of gaudeo, arcesso, dīvido, făcesso, lăcesso, pēto, quero, rēcenseo and obliviscor; as,

gāvīsus, arcessītus, dīvīsus, fūcessītus, lācessītus, pētītus, quæsītus, rēcensītus, oblitus; gāvīsūrus, etc.

3. I in the first increment of the fourth conjugation, except in timus of the perfect indicative, is long; as,

audire, audirem, auditus, auditurus, pres. vēnīmus, but in the perfect vēnīmus. So in the ancient forms in iban, ibo, of the fourth conjugation; as, nutribat, lēnībunt; and also in ibam and ibo, from eo.

Note 3. When a vowel follows, the i is short, by § 283; as, audiunt, audie-

4. I is long in the first and second persons plural of subjunctives in sim, sis, sit, tc., (§ 162, 1),; as, sinus, sitis, vėlimus, vėlitis, and their compounds; as, possimus, adsimus, mālimus, nōlimus. So also in nōlito, nōlite, nōlitēte, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation.

5. I in ris, rimus and ritis, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as,

vidėris, Mart., occidėris, Hor.; vidėritis (Ovid), dėdėritis (Id.); fēcērīmus (Catull.), ēgėrīmus (Virg.)

(d.) Exceptions in Increments in U.

U is long in the increment of supines, and of participles formed from the third root of the verb; as,

sēcūtus, sčlūtus, sēcūtbrus s lūtūrus.

RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF PENULTIMATE AND ANTEPE-NULTIMATE SYLLABLES.

I. PENULTS.

§ 291. 1. Words ending in acus, icus, and icum, shorten the penult; as,

ămārācus, Ægyptiācus, rusticus, trīticum, viāticum.

Exc.pt Dācus, mērācus, opācus; amīcus, aprīcus, ficus, mendīcus, picus, postīcus, pudīcus, spicus, umbilīcus, vicus.

2. Words ending in abrum, ubrum, acrum, and atrum, lengthen the penult; as,

candēlābrum, dēlūbrum, lāvācrum, vērātrum.

3. Nouns in ca lengthen the penult; as,

ăpăthēca, cloāca, lactūca, lorīca, phôca.

Except álica, brassica, dica, fullea, mantica, pêdica, pertica, scútica, phālārtca, tinica, cómica; and also some nouns in ica derived from adjectives in icus; as, fubrica, grammātica, etc. So mānicæ.

4. Patronymics in ades and ides shorten the penult; as, Atlantiúdes, Priămĭdes.

Except those in ides which are formed from nouns in eus or ēs (10); as, Atrīdes, from Atrēus; Neoclīdes, from Neoclēs; except, also, Amphiārāīdes, Bēlīdes, Amgclīdes, Līguargides.

5. Patronymics and similar words in ais, eis, and ois, lengthen the penult; as,

Achāis, Chryseis, Mīnōis. Except Phōcăis and Thēbāis. The penult of Nēreis is common.

6. Words in do lengthen the penult; as,

vādo, cēdo, dulcēdo, formīdo, rōdo, testūdo. Except cādo, dīvīdo, ědo (to eat), comědo, Macēdo, mōdo, solido, spādo, trēpīdo. Rudo is common.

Words in idus shorten the penult; those in udus lengthen it;
 as,

callidus, herbidus, limpidus, līvidus, perfidus; crūdus, lūdus, nūdus, sūdus, ūdus. Except Idus, fīdus, infidus, nīdus, sīdus.

8. Nouns in ga and go lengthen the penult; as,

sāga, collēga, aurīga, rūga; imāga, cāliga, ærūga. Except cālīga, ossifrāga tāga, plāga, (a region, or a net), fūga and its compounds, stēga, ecloya, ēga, barpāga, go.

9. Words in le, les, and lis, lengthen the penult; as,

crīnāle, mantēle, ancīle; āles, mīles, prēles; annālis, crūdēlis, cīvūlis, cūrūlis.— Except māle;—verbals in ilis and bilis; as, āgilis, āmābilis;—adjectives in atlis; as, umbrātilis,;—and also, indoles, soboles; pēriscēlis, dapsilis, grācīlis, bāmilis, pārīlis, simīlis, stirīlis, mūgilis, strīgilis.

 Words in elus, ela, elum, lengthen the penult; as, phăsēlus, quērēla, prēlum. Except gēlus, gēlum, scēlus.

11. Diminutives in olus, ola, o.um, ulus, ula, ulum, also words in

ilus, and those in ulus, ula, and ulum, of more than two syllables shorten the penult; as,

urceölus, filióla, lectúlus, rătiuncăla, corcălum, pābălum; rătilus, garrūlus fābūla. Except asīlus.

Words in ma lengthen the penult; as,

fāma, poēma, rīma, plūma. Except ănima, cóma, décuma, lacrima, victima,

13. A vowel before final men or mentum is long; as,

lèvamen, gramen, crimen, flamen, jamentum, âtramentum. Except tâmen, cô-limen, Hjimen, lèimentum, and a few verbal nouns derived from verbs of the second and third conjugations; as, ālimentum, dôcamen or dòcamentum, ēmolitmentum, régimen, specimen, tégimen, etc.

Words ending in imus shorten the penult; as,

ánimus, décimus, finitimus, fortissimus, maximus. Except bimus, limus, mimus opimus, quadrimus, simus, trimus, and two superlatives, imus and primus.

Note. When an adjective ends in umus for imus, the quantity remains the same; as, dēcūmus, optūmus, maxūmus, for dēcūmus, etc.

15. A, e, o, and u, before final mus and mum, are long; as,

rāmus, rēmus, extrēmus, prōmus, dāmus, pōmum, rōlēmum. Except ātōmus, balsāmum, cinnāmum, dōmus, glōmus, hāmus, postāmus, thālāmus, tōmus, cālāmus, nēmus.

16. (a.) Words in na, ne, ni, and nis, lengthen the penult; as,

lāna, ārena, carīna, mātrāna, līna, māne, seplīni, octāni, ināmis, finis, immānis. Except adeēna, cottāna, pētsāna, mīna, gēna, bēne, sine, cāma, cīns, yūentes: and the following in ina,—buccīna, domina, riscina, fēmīna, fuscina, lāmina, māclina, pāgina, pātīna, sarcīna, tābicīna, trātīna: and in plur. āpīna, nāna, nundīna So compounds of gēno; as indigēna

(b.) Verbs in ino and inor shorten the penult; as,

destino, fuscino, inquino, sino, criminor. Except festino, propino, săgino, opinor, and the compounds of clino; as, inclino, etc.

17. (a.) Adjectives in inus, when they express time, or indicate a material or an inanimate substance, shorten the penult; as,

crastinus, diatinus, pristinus, pērendinus: fāginus, crōcinus, hyācinlitnus, ādimantinus, crystallinus, bleāginus, bombģcinus. Except mātūtinus, rēpentinus, vesnertinus.

(b.) Other adjectives and words in inus and in inum lengthen the penult; as,

caninus, bīnus, pēregrīnus, mārīnus, clandestinus, skipīnus: līnum. Excopt āchus, disīnus, coccinus, cominus, ēmīnus, cophinus, dominus, fācinus, fāticinus, protinus, sinus, terminus, gēmīnus, circinus, minus, vāticīnus, succinum, fascinum.

18. A, e, o, and u, before final nus and num, are long; as,

urbānus, sērēnus, patronus, pronus, mūnus, trībūnus, fānum, cēnēnum, donum. Except ānus, an old woman, galbānus, mānus, oceānus, plātānus, cēenus, gēnus, līmigēnus, pēnus, tēnus, Vēnus, onus, bōnus, sōnus, thronus; lagānum, peucēdāuun, popānum, tympānum, abrūtonum.

19. Words ending in ba, bo, pa, and po, shorten the penult; as,

fôba, jāba, syllāba; bibo, cibo, prôbo; ālāpa, lūpa, scāpha; crēpo, participo. Except gibba, scrība, būbo, glūbo, lībo, nībo, scrībo, sipho, cēpa, cūpa, pāpa, pūpa, rīpa, stīpa, sāpa, sāpa; cāpa, pāpa, pūpa, rīpa, stīpa. 20. Words in al, ar, are, and aris, lengthen the penult; as,

tribūnal, vectīgal: lūpānar, pulvīnar; altāre, lāqueāre; nāris. Except animal căpital, cubital, toral, jubar, sălar, măre, bimaris, hiláris, canthăris, cappăris lvaris.

21. Before final ro or ror, a and e are short; i, o, and u, are long

ăro, păro, fêro, gêro, sero, celero, tempero, queror; miror, spiro, tiro; auctoro, ignoro, oro; curo, duro, figuro; luror. Except declaro, pero, spero; foro, moror, soror, voro, furo, saturo; and derivatives from genitives increasing swrt ne auguror, decoro, memoro, murmuro, etc.; from augur, auguris; decus, decoris, etc.

22. Before final rus, ra, rum, e is short; the other vowels are long; as,

mērum, mērus, hēdēra, sērum, cētērum; cārus, mīrus, mōrus, mūrus, gyrus; āra, spīra, ōra, nātūra, lorum.

Except, 1. austērus, gālērus, plērus, procērus, sincērus, sērus, sēvērus, vērus,

crātēru, cēra, pēra, panthēra, stātēra. Exc. 2. barbārus, cammārus, cāmūrus, canthārus, chŏrus, förus, hellēbārus, nūrus, opipārus, ovipārus, phosphorus, pirus, sātyrus, scārus, spārus, tartārus, torus, zēphyrus; amphora, ancora, cithāra, hāra, lyra, mora, purpūra, philyra, pýra, sátira; forum, gárum, párum, suppárum.

23. Adjectives in osus lengthen the penult; as,

f ūmosus, vīnosus.

24. Nonns in etas and itas shorten the penult; as, pietas, cīvitas, bonitas.

25. Adverbs in tim lengthen the penult, those in iter and itus shorten it; as,

statim, (constantly), viritim, tribūtim; acriter, funditus. Except statim, (immediately), affătim.

26. (a.) Words in ates, itis, otis, and in ata, eta, ota, uta, lengthen the penult, as,

vātes, pēnātes, vītis, mītis, cāryōtis, Icāriōtis, pīrāta, mēta, poēta, ālūta, cicūta. Except sitis, potis, drāpēta, nota, rota.

(b.) Nouns in ita shorten the penult; as, ămita, năvita, orbita, sēmita. Except pituita.

27. Nouns in atum, itum, utum, lengthen the penult; as,

lăpātum, ăconītum, vērūtum. Except dēfrūtum, pulpitum, pētorītum, lūtum (mud) compitum.

28. Nouns and adjectives ending in tus lengthen the penult; as,

barbātus, grātus, bolētus, fācētus, crīnītus, pērītus, ægrōtus, totus, argūtus, hir sītus. Except cātus, lātus, (ērīs), impētus, mētus, vēgētus, vētus; anhēlitus, digb tus, grātatus, hāltus, hospītus, servitus, spiritus; anhīditus, notus, guadus, totus (so grent); arbūtus, pūtus; inclījtus; and derivatives from perfect participles having a short penult; as, exercitus, habitus.

A penultimate vowel before v is long; as,

clava, oliva, dives, navis, civis, papaver, paro, privo, ovum, pravus, cestivus fugilivis. Except áris, brêvis, gráris, léris, oris; cávo, grávo, juvo, lávo, lêvo or avus, cávus, fávus nóvus, fávor, pávor, nóvem. 30. Words ending in dex, dix, mex, nix, lex, rex, lengthen the enult; as,

cōdex, jūdex; lōdix, rādix; cīmex, pūmex; jūnix; īlex; cārex, mūrex. Except cūlex, sīlex, rūmex.

II. ANTEPENULTS

\$ 292. 1. I is short in diminutives in iculus and icellus (a, wm) whether nouns or adjectives; as,

eolliculus, dulciculus, crăticula, pellicula, molticellus. Except words in which the preceding vowel is short; as, căticula, cânicula: or in which i is long in the rimitive; as, cornicula, from cornix, i-cis.

2. Numerals in ginti, ginta, ēni, and esīmus, lengthen the antepenult; as,

viginti, quādrāginta, tricēni, quinquāgēsimus.

- 3. O and u before final lentus are short; as, rinolentus, fraudălentus, pulvērālentus, trūcălentus.
- 4. A vowel before final nea, neo, nia, nio, nius, nium, is long; as,

dramea linea câmeo, mânia, pânio, Fârônius, patrimônium. Except casăinea, nâneo, nâneo, nâneo, sêneo, têneo, cipnôntain, bascinu, vênia, lânio, cânio, ingênium, gênius, sênio, sêniom; words în cânium, as, lênôcinium; and derivatives în onius, when o în the root of the primitive is short; as, Agâmennônius, from Agâmennôn, cânis.

5. Words ending in areo, arius, arium, erium, orius, orium, lengthen the antepenult; as,

āreo, cībārius, plautūrum, dictērium, censorius, tentorium. Except căreo, vărius, desiderium, impērium, māgistērium, ministērium.

- Adjectives in atīcus, atīlis, lengthen the antepenult; as, āquātīcus, plumātīlis. Except some Greek words in ātīcus; as, grammātīcus
- I before final tūdo is short; as, altitūdo, longitūdo.
- 8. Verbals in bilis lengthen a but shorten i in the antepenult; as, āmābilis, mīrābilis; crēdibilis, terribilis. In hābilis, b belongs to the root.
- 9. U before v is short, (except in Jūverna); as, jūvenis, jūvenālis, jūvenīlitas, flūvius, dilūvium.

III. PENULT OF PROPER NAMES.

§ 293. 1. Patrials and proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, shorten the penult:—

ba, ca, la, ² be,	le,4 pe,5 re,	o,6 on,7 os,8 er,9 mas,	ges, les, lis, ¹⁰ bus, cus, ¹¹	dus,18 eus,14 gus,15 lus,16 mus,17	ena, ¹⁹ anes, enes, aris, vris,	arus, erus, ²¹ yrus, asus, osus,	atus, ²² itus, ²³ otus. ²⁴
ohe		mas,	chne 12	phys 18	yris,	osus,	

Exceptions.

⁴Márica, Māsta.—²Eriphyla, Messāla, Philómēla, Suādēla.—³Bērēnice.—
⁴Eriphyle, Neobūle, Perimēle.—⁵Europe, Sinope.—⁵Carthāgo, Cūpāvo, Cūpāvo, Cūpādo, Orīgo, Theāno.—⁷Alēmon, Anthēdon, Chaleedon, Jāson, Phileimon, Polypemon, Sarpēdon, Thermodon.—⁷Cereyros, Pepārēthos, Pharsālos, Seriphos.—⁸Meleiger.—¹⁰Bessālis, Eumelis, Jūvėnalis, Martialis, Phāselis, Stvruphialis.—¹⁰Enhēus, Cateus, Grānicus, Numicus, Trivius.—¹⁰Ophinehus, Jahvidus.—¹⁰Caphiarens, Enipeus, Prometheus, Phōroneus, Salmoneus, Olieus.—¹⁰Cethegus.—¹⁰Names in -clus, in -olus (ezcept Ēdus, Naubūlus), in -bulus, (ezcept Bibālus) Eumelis, Gartilus, Jūlus, Massylus, Orbins, Pharsālus, Sardānāpālus, Stvmphālus.—¹¹Some in -dēmus and -phēmus; as, Acādēmus, Polyphēmus.—¹⁰Menēma, Athēna, Cāmēna, Fidena, Pidena, Promerus, Jūrena.—¹⁰Serphus.—¹⁰Menēma, Athēna, Cāmēna, Fidena, Russēna, Mūrēna, Jiycēne.—²⁰Amāsis.—³Homērus, Ibērus.—²⁰Arātus, Cærātus, Torquātus.—³Mīrānā, Hermaphroditus.—²⁰Bāthrōtus.

2. Proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, lengthen the penult:—

ana,1	sa,	num,7	tas,	nus,12	urus,	etus,16
ina,2	t:ı,4	tum,	des,9	pus,18	esus,15	utus,
ona,8	tæ,5	or,8	tes,10	irus,	isus,	ytus,17
yna,	ene,6	nas,	tis, ¹¹	orus,14	ysus,	vus.

Exceptions.

¹Sēquāna.—²Mūtina, Prōserpīna, Ruspīna, Sarsīna.—³Axōna, Matrōna.
¹Dadnāta, Prōchŷta, Sarmāta, Lāpītha.—⁵Gālātæ, Jaxāmētæ, Massāgētæ,
Macētæ, Saurōnāta.—*6Ujmēne, Hēlene, Meļbomēne, Nyctimēne.—¹Arīmīnum, Drēpānum.—*Nmītor.—*Militiādes, Pylādes, Sōtādes, Thācŷdīdes; parvongmics in des, (§ 201, 4), and plauds in ades.—¹Pāntiphātes, Chārites, Eurybātes, Ichmōbātes, Euergētes, Massāgētes, and all names in -crates.—¹Dercētis.—¹Apidānus, Pādmāmēnus, Earīmus, Erdēnus, Itbānus, Mořīni, Mycōnus, Nebrōphōnus, Olenus, Pēriclýmēnus, Rhēdans, Santōnus, Sēquāni, Štephānus, Teleģonus, Termīnus, and names in -ponus and -xenus.—¹4Ecdrus, Bospōrus, and names in -chorus and -phorus; as, Stēsi-chōrus, Phosphōrus.—¹5Ephēsus, Vogēsus, Völēsus.—¹6lāpētus, Tāygētus, Vēnētus.—¹7.Ēpytus, Anytus, Euryfus, Hippolytus.

The penultimate vowel of the following proper names, and adjectives derived from proper names, though followed by a vowel, is long. See § 283, I. Exc. 6.

Ænēas, Æthīon, Achēlūus, Achillēus, Alcyōuēus Alexandrīa, Alōeus, Alphēus, Amīniēus, Amphiārāus, Auphigenia, Amphon, Amythāon, Arīon, Anchisēns, Atlanteus, Antiōchīa, Bioneus, Cæsārēa, Cālaurēa, Calliōpēa, Cæssīopēa, Cleanthēas, Cydōnēus, Cymōdōcēa, Cythērēa, Dārius (-ēus), Dēidanta,
Didymāon, Diomēdēus, Dollehāon, Echion, Elēus, Endymionēus, Enyo, Eōus,
Erēbēus, Erecthēus, Gālatēa, Gigantēus, Herāclēa (-œus), Hippōdamīa, Hýpērion, Ilntiyā, Imāon, Iolāus, Iphigenia, Ixion, Lāōdamīa, Lātōus, Lesbous,
Lycēon, Māchāon, Mausōlēum, Mēdea, Menelāus, Mēthīon, Myrtōus, Ophīon,
Orion, Orithyīa, Orphēus, Pallantēum (-us), Pandion, Paphagēa, Pēnēus, Penthēsilea, Phœbeus, Poppēa, Protēstīaus, Pyrēnēus, Sardous, Thālā.

Note. Eus in the termination of Greek proper names, is commonly a dypnion; as, Alecus, Caneus, Orpheus, Péleus, Persus, Proteus, Théseus, Thiesus, Thiesus, which are dissyllables; Bridireus, Énipheus, Macareus, Typhéeus, which are trisyllables, Idoméneus, etc. Cf. § 283, Exc. 6, Note 2. But in those which in Greek are written usc (eios), eus forms two syllables; as, Alphéus. So also in adjectives in eus, whether of Greek or Latin origin; as, Érébeus, Erechéus. Orphéus; auréa, Ignéus

QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

I. VOWELS.

MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 294. (a.) All monosyllables, except enclitics, ending in a vowel, are long; as,

ā, āli, dā, stā, ē, dē, mē, tē, sē, nē, rē, î, f î, hì, qui, nī, sì, O or õh, dō, prō, prōh, quō, stō, tū.

POLYSYLLABLES.

A final.

 A final, in words declined, is short; as, mūsă, templă, căpĭtă, Tūdeă. Thus,

Mūsā mīhi causas mēmorā; quo nūmīne læso.... Virg. A. 1, 8.

Exc. A final is long in the ablative of the first declension, and in the vocative of Greek nouns in as and es; as,

Mūsā, fundā; O Ænēā, O Pallā, O Anchisā.

in tărătantără, the imitated sound of the trumpet.

2. A final, in words not declined, is long; as, ămā, frustrā, anteā, erqā, intrā. Thus,

Ertrā fortūnam est quidquid donātur amīcis. Mart. Epig. 5, 42, 7.

Exc. A final is short in eiä, itä, quiä, and in pūtā, when used adverbially, in the sense of 'for example.' It is sometimes short in the preposition contra, and in numerals ending in ginta; as, triginta, etc. In postea, it is common.

A final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, alphā, būtā, etc., and

E final.

§ 295. E final, in words of two or more syllables, is short; as, nātē, patrē, ipsē, currē, rēgērē, nempē, antē. Thus,

Incipě, parvě puer, rīsu cognoscěrě matrem. Virg. E. 4, 60.

REMARK. The enclitics -que, ne, -ve, -ce, -te, -pte, etc., as they are not used alone, have e short, according to the rule; as, něqué, hūjuscě, suaptá Cf. § 294, (a.)

Exc. 1. E final is long in nouns of the first and fifth declensions as.

Calliopē, Týdūlē, fidē. So also in the compounds of rē and diē; as, quārē, bādiē, prāliē, postridiē, quōtīdiē, and in the ablative fāmē, originally of the fifth declension.

Exc. 2. E final is long in Greek vocatives from nouns in -es, of the third denoisin; as, Achille, Hippóménē; and in Greek neuters plural; as, cété, mělé pélágě, Tempě.

Exc. 3. In the second conjugation, e final is long in the second person singular of the imperative active; as, dôcē, mŏnē;—but it is sometimes short in câre, vāle and vāle.

Exc. 4. E final is long in adverbs formed from adjectives of the recond declension; as.

plăcidē, pulchrē, valdē for vălīdē, maximē ; but it is short in běně, mălė, inferně, and superně.

Fxc. 5. Fĕrē, fermē, and ŏhē, have the final e long.

I final.

§ 296. I final is long; as, dŏmĭnī, fīlī, classī, dŏcērī, sī. Phus.

Quid domini făcient, audent cum tălia füres. Virg. E. 3, 16.

Exc. 1. (a.) I final is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, and ibi.

(b.) In ūbique and commonly in ibidem it is long, but in ūbivis and ūbinam it is not:—(c.) In nīsi, quāsi, and cui, when a dissyllable, i final is common, but usually short. In ūūnam and ūūque, and rarely, also, in ūti, it is short.

Exc. 2. I final is short in the dative singular of Greek nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Palladi, Minoidi, Tēthyi.

Exc. 3. I final is short in the vocative of Greek nouns in -is; as, Alexi, Daphni, Pārī. But it is long in vocatives from Greek nouns in -is, (uc) -entos; as, Sīmāi, Pērōi.

Exc. 4. I final is short in Greek datives and ablatives plural in -si, or, before a vowel, -sin: as, Dryāsi, hērāisi, Trāāsin.

O final.

§ 297. O final, in words of two or more syllables, is common; as, virgō, ămō, quandō. Thus,

Ērgō mētu capīta Scylla est īnīmīca paterno. Virg. Cir. 386. Ergō sollīcītæ tu causa; pēcūnia, vītæ es! Prop. 3, 5, 1.

Exc. 1. O final is long in the dative and ablative singular; as, döminö, regnö, bonö, suö, illö, eö.

Exc. 2. O final is long in ablatives used as adverbs; as, $cert\bar{v}$, $fals\bar{v}$, $mert\bar{v}$, $vulg\bar{v}$, $e\bar{v}$, $qu\bar{v}$; and also in $omnin\bar{v}$, in $erg\bar{v}$, 'for the sake of,' and in the interjection $i\bar{v}$.

Remark 1. The final o of verbs is almost always long in poets of the Augustan age.

REM. 2. In poets subsequent to the Augustan age, final o in verbs, in gernnds, and in the adverbs adeo, tdeo, ergo, sero, vero, porro, retro, immo, idcirco, subito, and postrimo, is sometimes short.

Exc. 3. O final is short in cito, illico, profecto, and the compounds of moldo; as, dummoldo, postmoldo, etc.; and in ego and homo it is more frequently short than long.

Exc. 4. O final in Greek nouns written with an oměga (α) is long; as, $Ch\bar{o}$, $Did\bar{o}$, $Ath\bar{o}$, and $Andr\bar{o}ge\bar{o}$, (gen.)

U final.

§ 298. 1. U final is long; as, vultū, cornū. Panthū, dĭctū, diū. Thus,

Vultū, que cœlum tempestătesque sĕrēnat. Virg. A. 1, 255.

Exc. Indu and nenu, ancient forms of in and non, have u short. U is also short in terminations in u short, when s is removed by elision; as, contentu for contentus. See § 305, 2.

Y final.

 Y final is short; as, Mōly, Tiphy. Thus, Mōly vöcant superi: nigrā rādīce tēnētur. Ovid. M. 14, 292.

Exo. Yin the dative Tēthŷ, being formed by contraction, is long. § 283, III

II. CONSONANTS.

MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 299 1. Monosyllables substantives ending in a consonant are long; all other monosyllables ending in a consonant are short; as,

sól, vir, fūr, jūs, splén, vēr, fūr, lār, Nār, pār, Sēr, fūr, fās, mās, rēs, pēs, Dīs, glīs, līs, vis, fīs, mās, rōs, Trōs, ōs, (ōrīs), dōs, grūs, rūs, tūs;—nēc, in, ān, āb, ād, qūd, quis, quūt, ēt; as,

Ipse dőcet quīd ăgam. Fās est ēt āb hoste döcēri. Ovid. M. 4, 428. Vēr ădeo frondi němŏrum, vēr ūtīle silvis. Virg. G. 2, 323.

Note. The rules for the quantity of final syllables ending in a consonant imply that the consonant is single, and that it is preceded by a single vowel. If otherwise the syllable will be iong by § 283, IV. and II.

Exc. 1. Cör, fēl, mēl, pöl, vīr, ŏs (gen. ossis), and probably vas (vădis), are short.

Exc. 2. En, non, quin, sin, crās, plās, cūr, and pār, are long: so also are particles and pronouns ending in c, except nec, which is short, and the pronouns hic and hoc, in the nominative and accusative, which are common.

Exc. 3. Monosyllabic plural cases of pronouns and forms of verbs in as, es, and is, are long; as, hās, quās, hōs, nōs, vōs, quōs, hīs, quās;—dās, flēs, stēs, is, fīs, siē, vīs, except šē from sum which is short.

Exc. 4. The abridged imperatives retain the quantity of their root; as, dic, duc, from dico, duco; fac, fir, from facio, firo.

POLYSYLLABLES.

D, L, N, R, T, final.

2. Final syllables ending in d, l, n, r, and t, are short; as illud, consul, carmen, pater, caput. Thus,

Obstūpuit simūl ipse, sīmul perculsus Achātes. Virg. A. 1, 513. Nomēn Arīūnium Sieūlas implētērāt urbes. Ovid. F. 2, 93. Dum lōquōr, horrōr, hābet; parsque est mēmīnisse döloris. Id. M. 9, 291.

Exc. 1. E in $li\bar{e}n$ is long.

Exc. 2. In Greek nouns, nominatives in n (except those in on written with an omicron), masculine or feminine accusatives in an or en, and genitives plural in on, lengthen the final syllable; as,

Tītin, Orion, Ænéān, Anchisēn, Calliopēn; epigrammaton.

Exc. 3. Aer, æther, and nouns in er which form their genitive in ēris, lengthen the final syllable; as,

crater, soter. So also Iber; but the compound Celtiber has sometimes a

Martial its last syllable short.

REMARK. A final syllable ending in t, may be rendered long by a diphthong. by contraction, by syncopation, or by position; as, aut, abit for abit, fundit, for fundit, amant. See § 283, II. III. IV., and § 162, 7, (d.)

M final.

Note Final m with the preceding vowel is almost always cut off, when the next word begins with a vowel. See Ecthlipsis, 6 305, 2.

 Final syllables ending in m, when it is not cut off, are short aa,

Quam laudas, plūmā? cocto num adest honor idem. Hor. S. 2, 2, 28.

Remark. Hence in composition the final syllables of cum and circum are short; as, comedo, circumago.

C final.

4. Final syllables ending in c are long; as, ālēc, illīc, istāc, illūc. Thus,

Illīc indocto primum se exērcuit arcu. Tib. 2, 1, 69.

Exc. The final syllable of donec is short; as,

Doněc ěris felix, multos núměrabis ámīcos. Ovid. Trist. 1, 9, 5.

AS, ES, and OS, final.

§ 300. Final syllables in as, es, and os, are long; as,

mūsās, pietās, āmās, Ænēās, quies, sermonēs, dies, Pēnēlopēs, ducenties, monēs, nos, virās, dominos. Thus, honos, viros, dominos.

Hās autem terrās, Italīque hanc lītöris ōram. Virg. A. 3, 396. Si modo des illis cultus, similesque paratus. Ovid. M. 6, 454.

Exc. 1. (a.) AS. As is short in anas, in Greek nouns whose genitive ends in adis or ados; as, Arcas, Pallas; and in Greek accusatives plural of the third declension; as, hēroas, lampadas.

(b.) As is short also in Latin nouns in as, ados, formed like Greek patronymics; as, Appias.

Exc. 2. ES. (a.) Final es is short in nouns and adjectives of the third declension which increase short in the genitive; as, hospes, līmēs, hēbēs; gen. hospītis, etc.

(b.) But it is long in abies, aries, păries, Ceres, and pes, with its compounds cornipēs, sonipēs, etc.

(c.) Es, in the present tense of sum and its compounds, and in the preposition pěněs, is short.

(d.) Es is short in Greek neuters in es; as, căcoēthés, and in Greek nominatives and vocatives plural from nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Arcades, Troes, Amazones; from Arcas, Arcadis, etc.

Exc. 3. OS. (a.) Os is short in compos, impos, and os (ossis), with its com-

pound exos

(δ.) Os is short in Greek nonus and cases written in the original with omeron; as (1) in all neuters; as, chobs, épós, Argós; (2) in all nouns of the second decleusion; as, Hibs, Tipros, Delos; except those whose genitive is in ō, (Greek ω); as, Athôs, gen. Athô; (3) in genitives singular of the third declension; as, Pallados, Tethyos, from Paliks and Tethys.

IS, US, and YS, final.

§ 301. Final syllables in is, us, and ys, are short; as,

turris, mīlitis, mītis, āmātis, āmābis, māgis; pectūs, bonūs, ējūs, āmāmūs, rursūs, tērīz; Cāpýs, Itýs. Thus,

Non *ăpîs* inde tălit collectos sēdăla flöres. *Ovid.* M. 13, 928. *Sēriūs* aut cītius sēdem *prŏpērāmūs* ad ūnam. *Id.* M. 10, 33. At *Cāpys*, et quōrum mělior sententia menti. *Virg.* A. 2, 35.

Exc. 1. IS. (a.) Is is long in plural cases; as,

mūsis, nobis; omnis, urbis, (for omnes, urbes); quis, (for queis or quibus). So also in the adverbs grātis, ingrātis, and föris, which are in reality datives or ablatives plural.

Et līquīdi sīmūl ignis; ut kis exordia primīs. Virg. A. 6, 33. Qufs ante ōra patrum Trõjæ sub monībus altis. Id. A. 1, 95. Non omrīs arbusta jūvant, hūmilesque mýrīcæ. Id. E. 4, 2. Adde töt ēgrēgias urbis, 5pērumque libūrem. Id. G. 2, 155.

- (b.) Is is long in the nominative of nouns whose genitive ends in itis, inis, or entis; as, Samnis, Sālāmis, Sīmois.
- (c.) Is is long in the second person singular of the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation; as,

audis, nescis. So also in the second persons, fiz, is, siz, vis, viliz, and their compounds; as, adsis, possis, quamvis, māliz, noliz, etc. Cf. § 299, 1, Exc. 3. (d.) Ris, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as,

viděris.

Exc. 2. US. (a.) Us is long in nouns of the third declension which increase long, and in the genitive singular, and the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension, (§ 89, Rem.,

and § 283, III.); as, tellis, virtis, incūs;—fructūs. But pālūs, with the us short, occurs in Horace, Art. Poet. 63.

(b.) Us is long in Greek nouns written in the original with the diphthong ous (ω̃c) whether in the nominative or genitive; as, nom. Amāthās, Opās, Œdipās, Irīpās, Panthās; gen. Dīdās, Sapphās. But compounds of pus (πους), when of the second declension, have us short; as, pölipās.

Note. The last syllable of every verse, (except the anapæstic and the Ionic a $min\bar{o}re$), may be either long or short at the option of the poet.

REMARK. By this is meant, that, although the measure require a long syllable, a short one may be used in its stead; and a long syllable may be used where a short one is required; as in the following verses, where the short syllable mu stands instead of a long one, and the long syllable cu instead of a slort one:—

Sanguineaque manu crepitantia concutit armā. Ovid. M. 1, 148. No. eget Mauri jāculis. nec arcā. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 2.

VERSIFICATION.

FEET.

§ 302. A foot is a combination of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

Feet are either simple or compound. Simple feet consist of two or three syllables; compound feet of four.

I. SIMPLE FEET.

1. Of two Syllables.

Spondee,two long,; as,	f ündünt.
Purrhictwo short : as	Děňs.
Trochee, or choree, a long and a short, — ; as,	ārmā.

2. Of three Syllables.

Dactyl, a long and two short,; as,corpora.
Anapæst,two short and a long, - = asdominī.
Tribrach, three short,; as, făcere.
Molossus, three long,; as, contendunt.
Amphibrach, a short, a long, and a short, : as amare.
Amphimacrus, or Cretic, a long, a short, and a long,: as castitas.
Bacchīus, a short and two long,; as
Antibacchius, two long and a short, ; as, Romanus.

II. COMPOUND FEET.

Dispondee,	a double spondee, — — — ; as,	flīxērūnt.
Proceleusmatic,	a double Pyrrhic,; as,hon	unibus.
Ditrochee,	a double trochee, : ascōn	mrðbāvit.
Diiambus,	a double iambus, — — —; as,ăm	āvērānt.
Greater Ionic	a spondee and a Pyrrhic, — — —; as,cor	rēxīmŭs.
Smaller Ionic,	a Pyrrhic and a spondee, ; as,pro	pěrábán t
Choriambus,	a choree and an iambus,; as,ter	rificant.
Antispast,	an iambus and a choree,; as,adh	æsīssě.
First epitrit,	an iambus and a spondee,; as,am	ävērūnt.
Second epitrit,	a trochee and a spondee,; as,con	ditörēs.
Third epitrit,	a spondee and an iambus, — — —; as,dise	rordiās.
Fourth epitrit,	a spondee and a trochee,; as,ādā	ūxīstis.
First paon,	a trochee and a Pyrrhic, —; as,tēm	poribus.
Second pæon,	an iambus and a Pyrrhic, — — —; as,pŏt	entiă.
	a Pyrrhic and a trochee, — — —; as,ānī	
Fourth pæon,	a Pyrrhic and an iambus,; as,cĕlē	ritās.

REMARK. Those feet are called *isochronous*, which consist of equal times as the spondee, the dactyl, the anapæst, and the proceleusmatic, one long time being considered equal to two short.

METRE.

- § 303. 1. Metre is an arrangement of syllables and feet according to certain rules.
- In this general sense, it comprehends either an entire verse, a part of a verse, or any number of verses.
- 3. Metre is divided into dactylic, anapastic, iambic, trochaic, chora ambic, and Ionic. These names are derived from the original on fundamental foot employed in each.
- 4. A metre or measure, in a specific sense, is either a single foot or a combination of two feet. In the dactylic, choriambic, and Ionic metres, a measure consists of one foot; in the other metres, of two feet. Two feet constituting a measure are sometimes called a syzygy

VERSES.

- § 304. A verse is a certain number of feet, arranged in a regular order, and constituting a line of poetry.
 - Two verses are called a distich; a half verse, a hemistich.
- 2. Verses are of different kinds, denominated sometimes, like the different species of metre, from the foot which chiefly predominates in them; as, dactylic, iambic, etc.;—sometimes from the number of feet or metres which they contain; as, sēnārius, consisting of six feet; petönārius, of eight feet; mōnōmēter, consisting of one measure; dīmēter, of two; trimēter, tetramēter, pentamēter, hexamēter;—sometimes from a celebrated author who used a particular species; as, Sapphic Anacreontic, Alcaic, Asclepiadic, Glyconic, Phalæcian, Sotadic, Archilochian, Alcmanian, Pherecratic, Aristophānic, etc., from Sappho, Anacreon, Alcaeus, Asclepiādes, Glycon, Phalæcus, Sotādes, Archilochian, Aleman, Pherecrätes, Aristophānes, etc.—and sometimes from the particular uses to which they were applied; as, the prosodiac, from its use in solemn processions, the paræmiac, from its frequent use in proverbs.
- A verse, with respect to the metres which it contains, may be complete, deficient, or redundant.
 - (1.) A verse which is complete is called acatalectic.
- (2.) A verse which is deficient, if it wants one syllable at the end, is called catalectic; if it wants a whole foot or half a metre, it is called brachycatalectic.
- (3.) A verse which wants a syllable at the beginning, is called acephalous.
- (4.) A verse which has a redundant syllable or foot, is called hypercatalectic or hypermeter
- 4. Hence, the complete name of every verse consists of three terms—the first referring to the species, the second to the number of metres, and the third to the ending; as, the dactylic trimeter catalectic

5. A verse or portion of a verse of any kind (measured from the beginning) which contains three half feet, or a foot and a half, is called a trihēmimēris; if it contains five half feet, or two feet and a half, it is called a penthēmimēris; if seven half feet, or three feet and a half, a hepthēmimēris; if nine half feet, or four feet and a half, an ennehēmimēris. A portion of a verse consisting of one whole metre and a half, is called a hēmiödius, as being the half of a trimeter.

NOTE. The respective situation of each foot in a verse is called its place.

SCANNING is the dividing of a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

REMARK. In order to scan correctly, it is necessary to know the quantity of each syllable, and also to understand the following poetic usages, which are sometimes called

FIGURES OF PROSODY.

SYNALEPHA.

§ 305. 1. Synalæpha is the elision of a final vowel or diphthong in scanning, when the following word begins with a vowel.

Thus, terra antiqua is read terr' antiqua; Dardănida infensi, Dardănid infensi; vento huc, vent' huc. So,

Quidve moror? si omnes uno ordine habetis Achivos. Virg. A. 2, 102.

Which is scanned thus-

Quidve moror? s' omnes un' ordin' habetis Achivos.

(1.) The interjections O, heu, ah, proh, væ, vah, are not elided;

O et de Lătia, O et de gente Săbīnā. Ovid. M. 14, 832.

KEMARK. But O, though not elided, is sometimes made short; as, Te Cörydon O Alexi; trähit sua quemque võluptas. Virg. E. 2, 65.

(2.) Other long vowels and diphthongs sometimes remain unelided, in which rase, when in the thesis of a foot, they are commonly made short; as,

Victor ăpud răpidum Simoënta süb Iliö alto. Virg. A. 5, 261. Anni tempöre eo qui Etisia esse feruntur. Lucr. 6, 717. Ter sunt conâti imponere Pelio Ossan. Virg. 6, 1, 281. Glaucō et Pānopēa, et Inso Mēlicertæ. Id. G. 1, 436.

(3.) Rarely a short vowel, also, remains without elision; as, Et vēra incessu pătuit deă. Ille übi mātrem.... Virg. A. 1, 405.

(4.) Synalœpha in a monosyllable occasionally occurs; as, Si ad vitŭlam spectas, nihil est, quod pocula laudes. Virg. E. 3, 48.

For synalcepha at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

ECTHLIPSIS.

2. Ecthlipsis is the elision of a final m with the preceding rowel, when the following word begins with a vowel. Thus,

9 curss höminum, 9 quantum est in rebus inane! Fers. 1, 1.

Which is thus scanned—

O curas homin' O quant' est in rebus înane.

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lümen ädemptum. Virg. A. 3, 638.

(1.) This elision was sometimes om the dby the early poets; as, Corpŏrüm officium est qu'niam premere omnia deorsum. Lucr. 1, 363.

See § 299, 2.

(2.) Final s, also, with the preceding vowel, is sometimes elided by the early poets before a vowel, and sometimes alone before a consonant; as, content adjue (Enn.), for contents adjue; omnthat rebus. (Lucr.) So,

Tum lăterăli' dolor, certissimu' nunciu' mortis. Lucil.

REMARK. This elision took place principally in short syllables. For eathlipsis at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

SYNÆRESIS.

§ 306. 1. Synæresis is the contraction into one syllable of two vowels which are usually pronounced separately. Thus,

Aureā percussum virgā, versumque vēnēnis. Virg. A. 7, 190. Bosdem hābuit sēcum, quībus est ēlāta, capillos. Prop. 4, 7, 7. Tītyre, pascentes a flūmine reice capellas. Virg. E. 3, 96.

REMARK 1. So Phaëthon is pronounced Phæthon; alveo, alvo; Orphea, Orpha; deorsum, dorsum.

(1.) Synæresis is frequent in ii, iidem, iisdem, dii, diis, dein, deinceps, deinde, deest, deërat, deëro, deërit, deesse; as,

Præcīpītātur aquis, et aquis nox surgit ab îsdem. Ovid. M. 4, 92. Sint Mæcēpātes: non deerunt. Flacce, Marones. Mart. 8, 56, 5.

Rem. 2. Cui and huic are usually monosyllables.

(2.) When two vowels in compound words are read as one syllable, the former may rather be considered as elided than as united with the latter; as, e in antendblo, anteire, authhoc, deline, mehercide, etc., and a in contrain

(3.) The syllable formed by the union of i or u followed by another vowel retains the quantity of the latter vowel, whether long or short; as, ābiēte, ārūtē, ābieque, pārētbus, consilium, fortuitus, Nāsūbēnus, vindēmātor, omaiā gēnuā, tēnuis, pītuita, flāviōrum, etc. In such examples, the i and u are pronounced like initial y and w: as, ābyēte, pāryētbus, consilyum, fortwitus, Nāsūdyēnus, omaryā, tenuis, pituita, etc.; and, like consonants, they have, with another consonant, the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel, as in the above examples.

Note. In Statius, the word tënuiëre occurs as a trisyllable, in which the three yowels, uio, are united in pronunciation; thus, tën-wië-re.

(4.) Sometimes, after a synalcepha or echthlipsis, two vowels suffer synæresis; as, stellio et, pronounced stell-yet: consilium et,—consil-yet.

(5.) If only one of the vowels is written, the contraction is called crasis; as, if, consili, for dii, consilii.

DIÆRESÍS.

2. Diærěsis is the division of one syllable into two; as,

aulāt, Tröia, sīlūa, sūādent; for aulæ, Troia or Troja, sīlva, suādent. So, sūesco for suesco; rēliqūūs for reliquus; ecqūis for ecquis; milūus for milvus, eto-as

Æthéreum sensum, atque aurāi simplicis ignem. Virg. A. 6, 747 Atque ālios ālii irrident, Vēnēremque sūādent. Lucr. 4, 1153. Grammātici certant; et ādhue sub iūdice lis est. Hor. A. P. 78. Aurārum et sūāæ mētu. Id. O. 1, 23, 4.

(1.) So in Greek words originally written with a diphthong (# or 1.); as, têpêra for êlêpîa, Bacchêtă for Bacchêt, Rhatētās for Rhatēsa And also in words of Latin origin; as, Vētās for Vētas, Aquiletā for Aquiletā.

REMARK. This figure is sometimes called dialysis.

SYSTOLE.

§ 307. 1. Systöle is the shortening of a syllable which is long by nature or by position; as,

vìdē'n for videsne, in which e is naturally long; sáti'n for sátisne, in which i is long by position;—hòdie for hōc die; multimódis for multis módis. So,

Dücere multimodis voces, et flectere cantus. Lucr. 5, 1405.

(1.) By the omission of j after āb, ād, āb, sāb, and rē, in compound words, those prepositions retain their naturally short quantity, which would otherwise be made long by position; as, ābici, ādici, ābicis, etc. Thus.

Si quid nostra tuis ădicit vexătio rebus. Mart. 10, 82, 1.

Remark. In some compounds the short quantity of dd and δb is preserved oefore a consonant by the elision of the d or b of the preposition, as in $dp\acute{e}rio$, $dp\acute{e$

(2.) The penult of the third person plural of certain perfects is said by some to be shortened by systole; as, stětěrunt, tälérunt, etc.; but others ascribe these irregularities to the errors of transcribers, or the cardessness of writers.

DIASTOLE.

- Diastŏle is the lengthening of a syllable which is naturally short.
- (1.) It occurs most frequently in proper names and in compounds of re; as, priāmides, rēlīgio, etc. Thus,

Hanc tibi *Priāmīdes* mitto, Lēdæa, sălūtem. *Ovid.* H. 16, 1. *Rēlīgiōne* patrum multos servāta per annos. *Virg.* A. 2, 715.

- (2.) Some editors double the consonant after the lengthened re; as, relligio.
- (3.) Diastole is sometimes called ectăsis.

SYNAPHEIA.

- 3. Synapheia is such a connection of two consecutive verses, that the first syllable of the latter verse has an influence on the final syllable of that which precedes, either by position, synalopha, or eethlipsis. See §§ 283 and 305.
- (1.) This figure is most frequent in anapæstic verse, and in the Ionic a minore.

The following lines will illustrate its effect:-

Præceps silvas montesque fugit Citus Actæon, Sen.

Here the i in the final syllable of fugit, which is naturally short, is made long by position before the following consonants, tc_1

Omnia Mercurio similis, vocemque celoremque Et crīnes flavos.... Virg. A. 4, 558. Dissīdens plēbi numero beatorum Eximit virtus. Hor. 0. 2, 2, 18.

In the former of these examples, synapheia and synal α pha are combined, que being elided before ϵt in the following line; in the latter there is a similar combination of synapheia and eethlipsis.

(2.) By synapheia, the parts of a compound word are sometimes divided between two verses; as,

.... si non offenderet unum-Quemque poetarum limæ labor et mora... Hor. A. P 290.

(3.) In hexameter verse a redundant syllable at the end of a line elided before a vowel at the beginning of the next line, by causing the accent to fall on the second syllable of the concluding spondee, and connecting the two verses by synapheia, excites the expectation of something which is to follow, and often tends to magnify the object; as,

Quös sūpēr- | -ātrā sī- | -lēx, jām- | -jām lāp- | -sūrā cā- | -dēntī- | -que Immīnet assīmīlis. $Virg.~\Lambda.~6,\,602.$

REMARK. The poets often make use of other figures, also, which, however, are not peculiar to them. Such are prosthesis, aphæresis, syncope, epenthesis, apocope, paragoge, tmēsis, antithēsis, and metathēsis. See § 322.

ARSIS AND THESIS.

- § 308. (1.) Rhythm is the alternate elevating and depressing of the voice at regular intervals in pronouncing the syllables of verse.
- (2.) The elevation of the voice is called arsis, its depression thesis These terms designate, also, the parts of a foot on which the elevation or depression falls.
- The natural arsis is on the long syllable of a foot; and hence, in a foot composed wholly of long, or wholly of short syllables, when considered in itself, the place of the arsis is undetermined; but when such foot is substituted for the fundamental foot of a metre, its arsis is determined by that of the latter.

REMARK. Hence, a spondee, in trochaic or dactylic metre, has the arsis on the first syllable; but in iambic or anapæstic metre, it has it on the last.

2. The arsis is either equal in duration to the thesis, or twice as long.

Thus, in the dactyl, - \sim , and anapæst, - \sim , it is equal; in the bochee, - \sim , and iambus, - , it is twice as long. This difference in the proportionate duration of the arsis and thesis constitutes the difference of rhythm. A foot is said to have the descending rhythm, when its arsis is at the beginning, and the ascending, when the thesis is at the beginning.

- 3. The stress of voice which falls upon the arsis of a foot, is called the ictus. When a long syllable in the arsis of a foot is resolved into two short ones, the ictus falls upon the former.
- NOTE 1. Some suppose that the terms arsis and thesis, as used by the ancients, denoted respectively the rising and falling of the hand in beating time, and that the place of the thesis was the syllable which received the ictus

NOTE 2. As the ancient pronunciation of Latin is not now understood, writers differ in regard to the mode of reading verse. According to some, the accent of each word should always be preserved; while others direct that the stress of voice should be laid on the arisis of the foot, and that no regard should be paid to the accent.

It is generally supposed that the final letters elided by synalorpha and ecthlipsis, though omitted in scanning, were pronounced in reading verse.

CÆSURA.

§ 309. Casura is the separation, by the ending of a word, of syllables rhythmically or metrically connected.

Cæsura is of three kinds:—1, of the foot; 2, of the rhythm; and 3, of the verse.

1. Cæsura of the foot occurs when a word ends before a foot is completed; as.

Silves- | -trem tenu- | -i Mu- | -sam medi- | -tāris a- | -vēnā. Virg. E. 1, 2.

- Cæsura of the rhythm is the separation of the arsis from the thesis by the ending of a word, as in the second, third, and fourth feet of the preceding verse.
- Rem 1. It hence appears that the cæsura of the rhythm is always a cæsura of the foot, as e. g. in the 2d, 3d, and 4th feet of the preceding verse; but, on the contrary, that the cæsura of the foot is not always a cæsura of the rhythm, as e. g. in the fifth foot of the same verse.
- (1.) Cassura of the rhythm allows a final syllable naturally short, to stand in the arsis of the foot instead of a long one, it being lengthened by the ictus; as,

Pēctori- | -bus inhi- | -ans spi- | -rantia | consulit | exta. Virg. A. 4, 64.

This occurs chiefly in hexameter verse.

- REM. 2. Cæsura of the foot and of the verse do not of themselves lengthen a short syllable, but they often coincide with that of the rhythm.
- 3. Cæsura of the verse is such a division of a line into two parts, as affords to the voice a convenient pause or rest, without injury to the sense or harmony.
- REM. 3. The casura of the verse is often called the casural pause. In several kinds of verse, its place is fixed; in others, it may fall in more than one place, and the choice is left to the poet. Of the former kind is the pentameter, of the latter the hexameter.

The proper place of the cassural pause will be treated of, so far as shall be necessary, under each species of verse.

REM. 4. The effect of the casura is to connect the different words harmoniously together, and thus to give smoothness, grace, and sweetness, to the verse.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF METRE.

DACTYLIC METRE.

§ 310. I. A hexameter or heroic verse consists of six feet. Of these the fifth is a dactyl, the sixth a spondee, and each of the other four either a dactyl or a spondee; as,

Āt tūbā | tērrībī- | -lēm sōnī- | -tūm prōcūl | ærē cā- | -nōrō. Virg. A. 9, 508. Intōn | -sī crī- | -nēs lōn - | -gā cēr- | -vicē fīū- | ebānt. Tōbub. 3, 4, 27. Lādērē | quē vēl- | -lēm cālā- | mo pēr- | misīt ā- | -grēst. Virg. E. 1, 10.

1. The fifth foot is sometimes a spondee, and the verse in such case is called spondaic; as,

Cāră dě- | -ūm sŏbŏ- | -lēs māg- | -nūm Jŏvīs | īncrē- | -mēntūm. Virg. E. 4, 49.

Remark 1. In such verses, the fourth foot is commonly a dactyl, and the fifth should not close with the end of a word. Spondaic lines are thought to be especially adapted to the expression of grave and solemn subjects.

2. A light and rapid movement is produced by the frequent recurrence of dactyls; a slow and heavy one by that of spondees; as,

Quadrupe- | -dante pu- | -trem soni- | -tu quatit | ungula | campum. Virg. A. 8, 596. Illi în- | -ter se- | -se mag- | -na vī | brachia tollunt. Id. A. 8, 452.

Rem. 2. Variety in the use of dactyls and spondees in successive lines, has an agreeable effect. Hexameter verse commonly ends in a word of two or three syllables, and a monosyllable at the end of a line is generally ungraceful, but sometimes produces a good effect; as,

Stěrnitůr, | ēxănî- | -mīsquē, trē- | -mēns prō- | -cūmbīt hǔ- | -mī bōs. Virg. A. 5, 481 Pārtūrī- | -ūnt mōn- | -tēs: nās- | -cētūr | rīdīcǔ- | -lūs mūs. Hor. A. P. 189.

3. The beauty and harmony of hexameter verse depend much on due attention to the casura. (See § 309.) A line in which it is neglected is destitute of poetic beauty, and can hardly be distinguished from prose; as,

Romæ | mænia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armis. Enn.

4. The cæsural pause most approved in heroic poetry is that which occurs after the penthemimeris, i. e. after the arsis in the third foot. This is particularly distinguished as the heroic casura. Thus,

"At domus | înteri- | -or | re- | -gali | splendidă | luxu. Virg. A. 1, 637.

5. Instead of the preceding, a casura in the thesis of the third foot, or after the arms of the fourth, was also approved as heroic; as,

Īnfān- | -dūm rē- | -gīnā || jū- | -bēs rēnŏ- | -vārē dŏ- | -lōrem. Virg. A. 2, 3. Īndē tō- | -rō pātēr | Ænē- | -ās || sīc | ōrsūs āb | āltō. Id. A. 2, 2.

REM. 3. When the cæsural pause occurs, as in the latter example, after the hephthemimeris, i. e. after the arsis of the fourth foot, another but slighter one is often found in the second foot; as,

Prīmă tě- | -nēt, || plau- | -sūquě vŏ- | -lāt || frěmī- | -tūquě sě- | -cūndo. Virg. A 5, 338.

6. The cæsura after the third foot, dividing the verse into exactly equal parts, was least approved; as,

Cuī non | dietus Hỹ- | -las puer | et La- | -tonia | Delos. Virg. G. 3, 6.

REM. 4. The casural pause between the fourth and fifth feet was considered as peculiarly adapted to pastoral poetry, particularly when the fourth foot was a dactyl, and was hence termed the bucolic cæsnra; as,

Stant vitu- | -li et tene- | -ris mu- | -gitībus | aera | complent. Nemes.

Note 1. The casura after the arsis is sometimes called the masculine or sullabic cæsura; that in the thesis, the feminine or trochaic, as a trochee immediately precedes. When a casura occurs in the fifth foot it is usually the trochaic cæsura, unless the foot is a spondee; as,

Frāxīnus | în sīl- | -vīs pūl- | -chērrīma, | pīnus in | hortis. Virg. E. 7, 65.

(a.) It is to be remarked that two successive trochaic cæsuras in the second and third feet are, in general, to be avoided, but they are sometimes employed to express irregular or impetuous motion; as,

Una Eu- | -rūsque No- | -tūsque rū- | -ūnt cre- | -bērque pro- | -cēllīs. Virg. A. 1 36.

(b.) Successive trochaic casuras are, in like manner, to be avoided in the hird and fourth feet, but are approved in the first and second, in the fourth and fifth, and in the first, third and fifth. See Virg. A. 6, 651: 1, 94: and 6, 522.

NOTE 2. In the principal casura of the verse poets frequently introduce a pause in the sense, which must be attended to in order to determine the place of the casural pause. For in the common place for the casura in the third foot there is often a casura of the foot; while, in the fourth foot, a still more marked division occurs. In this case, the latter is to be considered as the principal casura, and distinguished accordingly; as.

Bellī | ferrā- | -tōs pōs- | -tes, | pōr- | -tāsquĕ rĕ- | -frēgit. Hor. S. 1, 4, 61.

II. The Priapēan is usually accounted a species of hexameter. It is so constructed as to be divisible into two portions of three feet each, having generally a trochee in the first and fourth place, but often a spondee and rarely a dactyl; in the second, usually a dactyl; and an amphimacer and more rarely a dactyl in the third; as,

Õ co- | -lonia | quæ cupis | ponte | ludere | longo. Catull. 17, 1.

It is, however, more properly considered as choriambic metre, consisting of alternate Glyconics and Pherecratics. See § 316, IV. V. Thus,

O co- | -lonia, quæ | cupis Ponte | ludere lon- | -go.

NOTE. A regular hexameter verse is termed Priapēan, when it is so constructed as to be divisable into two portions of three feet each; as,

Tērtīā | pārs pā- | -trī dātā || pārs dātā | tērtīā | mātrī. Catull. 62, 64 See above, 6.

§ 311. III. A pentameter verse consists of five feet.

REMARK 1. It is generally, however, divided, in scanning, into two hemistichs, the first consisting of two feet, either dactyls or spondees, followed by a long syllable; the last, of two dactyls, also followed by a long syllable; as.

> Nătū- | -ræ sĕquī- | -tūr || sēmīnă | qūisquĕ sŭ- | -æ. Prop. 3, 7, 20. Cārmīnī- | -būs vī- | -vēs || tēmpŭs în | ōmnĕ mē- | -īs. Ovid.

 According to the more ancient and correct mode of scanning pentameter verse, it consists of five feet, of which the first and second may each be a dactyl or a spondee; the third is always a spondee; and the fourth and fifth are anapæsts; as,

> Nātū- | -ræ sēquī- | -tūr || sēm- | -īnă quīs- | -quĕ sūæ. Cārmīnī- | -būs vī- | -vēs || tēm- | -pūs în ōm- | -nĕ mĕīs.

The cesura, in pentameter verse, always occurs after the penthemimeris, i. e. at the close of the first hemistich. It very rarely lengthens a short syllable.

The pentameter rarely ends with a word of three syllables. In Ovid, it usually ends with a dissyllable.

Rem. 2. This species of verse is seldom used, except in connection with hexameter, a line of each recurring alternately. This combination is called *tegiac* verse. Thus,

Flebilis indignos, Elegeik, solve capillos.

Ah nimis ex vero nine tibi nomen erit! Ovid, Am. 8, 9, 8.

§ 312. IV. The tetrameter a priore, or Alemanian dactylic ietrameter, consists of the first four feet of a hexameter, of which the fourth is always a dactyl; as,

Garrulă | per ra- | -mos, avis | obstrepit. Sen. Œd. 454.

V. The tetrameter a posteriore, or spondaic tetrameter, consists of the last four feet of a hexameter; as,

Ībīmus, | O soci- | -ī, comi- | -tēsque. Hor. Od. 1, 7, 26.

REMARK. The penultimate foot in this, as in hexameter verse, may be a spondee, but in this case the preceding foot should be a dactyl; as,

Mēnsō- | -rēm cŏhī- | -bēnt Ar- | -chỹtā. Hor. Od. 1, 28, 2.

VI. The dactylic trimeter consists of the last three feet of a hexameter; as,

Grāto | Pyrrha sub | antro. Hor. Od. 1, 5, 3.

Remark. But this kind of verse is more properly included in choriambic metre. See § 316, V.

VII. The trimeter catalectic Archilochian consists of the first five half feet of a hexameter, but the first and second feet are commonly dactyls; as,

Pülvis ět | ümbră sŭ- | -mus. Hor. Od. 4, 7, 16.

VIII. The dactylic dimeter, or Adonic, consists of two feet, a dactyl and a spondee; as,

Rīsīt A- | -pollo. Hor. Od. 1, 10, 12.

IX. The Æolic pentameter consists of four dactyls preceded by a spondee, a trochee, or an iambus. Thus

X. The Phalecian pentameter consists of a dactylic penthimimeris and a dactylic dimeter; as,

Vīsē - | -bāt gēlī - | -dæ | sīdērā | brumæ. Boëthius.

REMARK. A trochee is sometimes found in the first place and an iambus in the first and second places.

XI. The Tetrameter Meiurus, or Faliscan consists of the last four feet of a hexameter, except that the last foot is an iambus instead of a spondee; as,

Ut nova | fruge gra- | vis Ceres | eat. Boethius.

XII. The Tetrameter Catalectic consists of the tetrameter a priore wauting the latter half of the concluding dactyl; as,

Omne homi- | -num genus | in ter- | -ris. Boethius.

ANAPÆSTIC METRE.

I. The anapæstic monoměter consists of two ana-§ **313.** pæsts; as,

Ululas- | -se canes. Sen.

II. The anapastic dimeter consists of two measures, or four anapasts; as,

Phăretræ- | -que graves | date sæ- | -va fero Sen.

REMARK 1. The first foot in each measure of anapæstic metre was very often changed to a dactyl or a spondee, and the second foot often to a spondee and, in a few instances, to a dactyl.

REM. 2. Anapæstic verses are generally so constructed that each measure ends with a word, so that they may be written and read in lines of one, two, or more measures.

IAMBIC METRE.

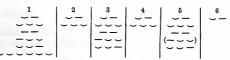
§ 314. I. The *iambic trimeter*, or *senarius*, consists of three iambic measures, or six iambic feet; as,

Phăsē- | -lus îl- | -le, || quem | vide- | -tis hos- | -pites.... Catull. 4. 1.

- 2. The cæsura commonly occurs in the third but sometimes in the fourth foot.
- 3. The pure iambic measure was seldom used by the Latin poets, but to vary the rhythm spondees were introduced into the first, third, and fifth places. In every foot, also, except the last, which was always an iambus, a long syllable was often changed into two short ones, so that an anapæst or a dactyl was used for a spondce, and a tribrach for an iambus, but the use of the dactyl in the fifth place was very rare; as,

Quō, quō | scĕlēs- | -tī rŭī- | -tīs? āut | cūr dēx- | -tĕrīs.... Hor. Epod. 7, 1. Ālītī- | -būs āt- | -quĕ cặnī- | -būs hōmī- | -cīdam Hēc- | -tŏrēm.... M. Epod. 17, 12.

- 4. Sometimes, also, a procelensmatic, or double pyrrhic, was used in the first place for a spondee. The writers of comedy, satire, and fable, admitted the spondee and its equivalents (the dactyl and anapsest) into the second and fourth places, as well as the first, third, and fifth.
 - 5. The following, therefore, is the scale of the Iambic Trimeter:-



In the construction of the Iambic Trimeter an accent should fall on the second syllable of either the third foot or both the second and fourth feet; as,

Ibīs | Lībūr- | -nīs in- | tĕr āl- | -tǎ nā- | -vĭum | . Utrūm- | -nĕ jús- | -sī pēr- | -sĕquē'- | -mŭr ō- | -tīum. |

II. The scazon, or choliambus (lame iambic), is the iambic trimeter, with a spondee in the sixth foot, and generally an iambus in the fifth; as,

Cŭr In | thëa- | -trum, Cato | seve- | -re, ve- | -nisti? An ide- | o tan- | -tum ven- | -eras, | ut ex- | -ires? Mart. Ep. 1, 1, 8.

This species of verse is also called *Hipponactic* trimeter, from its inventor Hipponax.

III. The iambic tetrameter or quadrātus, called also from the num ber of its feet octonarius, a measure used by the comic poets, consists of four iambic measures, subject to the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Nunc hie | dies | aliam | vitam af- || -fert, ali- | -os mo- | -res pos- | -tulat. Ter. A. 1,2, 18.

MEMARK. The cæsura regularly follows the second measure.

IV. The iambic tetrameter catalectic or Hipponactic, is the iambic tetrameter, wanting the last syllable, and having always an iambus in the seventh place, but admitting in the other places the same variations as the trimeter and tetrameter; as,

Dēprēn- | -să nā- | -vīs īn | mărī, | vēsā- | -nĭēn- | -tē vēn- | -to. Catull. 25, 13.

V. The iambic trimeter catalectic or Archilochian, is the iambic trimeter (I.), wanting the final syllable. Like the common iambic trimeter, it admits a spondee into the first and third places, but not into the fifth; as,

Võcā- | -tŭs āt- | -quĕ nōn | vŏcā- | -tūs āu- | -dit. Hor. Od. 2, 18, 40. Trăhūnt- | -qŭe sīc- | -cās māch- | -īnæ | cărī- | -nas. Id. Od. 1, 4, 2.

VI. The iambic dimeter consists of two iambic measures, with the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Förti | sĕquē- | -mūr pēc- | -tŏre. Hor. Epod. 1, 14.. Cānidi- | -ā trāc- | -tāvīt | dāpēs. Id. Epod. 3, 8. Vīdē- | -rē prŏpē- | -rāntēs | dŏmum. Id. Epod. 3, 62.

REMARK. The iambic dimeter is also called the Archilochian dimeter.

The following is its scale:-

VII. The iambio dimeter hypermeter, called also Archilochian, 18 the iambic dimeter, with an additional syllable at the end; as,

Rědě- | -git în | věrôs | timô- | -rēs. Hor. Od. 1, 37, 15.

REMARK. Horace always makes the third foot a spondee.

VIII. The iambic dimeter acephalous is the iambic dimeter, wanting the first syllable; as,

Non | ĕbūr | nĕque au- | -rĕum.... Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1.

REMARK. This kind of verse is sometimes scanned as a catalectic trochaic neter. See § 315, IV.

IX. The iambic dimeter catalectic, or Anacreontic, is the iambic dimeter, wanting the final syllable, and having always an iambus in the third foot; as,

Ut tī- | grīs ōr- | -bă gnā- | -tīs. Sen. Med. 863.

X. The Galliambus consists of two iambic dimeters catalectic, the last of which wants the final syllable.

REMARK 1. It was so denominated from the Galli or priests of Cybele, by whom it was used.

REM. 2. In the first foot of each dimeter the anapæst was generally preferred to the spondee. The catalectic syllable at the end of the first dimeter is long, and the second foot of the second dimeter is commonly a tribrach; as.

Săpēr al- | -tă vēc- | -tăs A- | -tys | celeri | răte mă- | -ria. Catull, 63, 1.

REM. 3. The cæsura uniformly occurs at the end of the first dimeter.

TROCHAIC METRE.

- § 315. 1. Trochaic verses bear a near affinity to iambics. The addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure fambic verse, renders it pure trochaic, and the addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure trochaic line, renders it pure iambic, with the deficiency or redundancy of a syllable in each case at the end of the verse.
- I. The trochaic tetrameter catalectic consists of seven feet, followed by a catalectic syllable. In the first five places and very rarely in the sixth, it admits a tribrach, but in the seventh a trochee only. In the even places, besides the tribrach, it admits also a spondee, a dactyl, an anapæst, and sometimes a proceleusmatic; as.

Jūssūs | ēst In | ērmīs | īrē: || pūrūs | īrē | jūssūs | ēst. Auct. P. Vēn. Rōmū | læās | īpsā | fēcit || cūm Sā | -bīnīs | nūptī | -ās. Id. Dānāī | dēs, cō | -ītē; | vēstrās || hīc dī - | -ēs quæs | -rīt mā - | -nūs. Sen.

The following is its scale:-

1	2	8	4	5	6	7	8
		- ~					_
		~~~		~ ~ ~			
		ŀ					
				1			
		1					

REMARK 1. The pure trochaic verse was rarely used, and the dactyl very rarely occurs in the fourth place. The cessural pause uniformly occurs after the fourth foot, thus dividing the verse into a complete dimeter and a catalectic dimeter. The comic writers introduced the spondee and its equivalent feet into the odd places.

REM. 2. The complete trochaic tetrameter or octonarius properly consists of eight feet, all trochees, subject, however, to the same variations as the catalectic tetrameter; as,

Īpsē | sūmmīs | sāxīs | fīxŭs | āspē- | -rīs, ē- | -vīscē- | -rātŭs. Enn.

II. The Sapphie verse, invented by the poetess Sappho, consists of five few—the first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees; as,

Inté- | -ger vi- | -tæ, | scélé- | -risque | pûrus. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 1.

- 1. Sappho, and, after her example, Catullus, sometimes made the second foot a trochee.
- 2. Those Sapphics are most harmonious which have the cæsura after the fifth semi-foot.

NOTE 1. In the composition of the Sapphic stanza, a word is sometimes divided between the end of the third Sapphic, and the beginning of the Adou's which follows: as.

Lābi- | -tūr ri- | -pā Jövě | non pro- | -bānte uxorlus | āmnis. Hor. Od. 1, 2, 19. It has been thought by some that such lines should be considered as one Sapphic verse of seven feet, the fifth foot being either a spondee or a trochee.

Nore 2. This verse is sometimes scanned as epichoriambic, having an epitrite in tl.; first place, a choriambus in the second, and ending with an iambio sizygy caralectic; thus,

Integer vī- | -tæ, scelerīs- | -que pūrus.

III. The Phalacian verse consists of five feet—a spondee, a dactyl, and three trochees; as,

Non est | vīvere, | sed va- | -lere | vīta. Mart.

REMARK 1. Instead of a spondee as the first foot, Catullus sometimes uses a trochee or an iambus. This writer also sometimes uses a spondee in the second place.

Rem. 2. The Phalæcian verse is sometimes called hendecasyllabic, as consisting of eleven syllables; but that name does not belong to it exclusively.

IV. The trochaic dimeter catalectic consists of three feet, properly all trochees, and a catalectic syllable, but admitting also in the second place a spondee or a dactyl; as,

Non ĕ | -būr nĕ- | -que āūrĕ- | -um. Hor. Od. 2, I8, 1. Lēnīs | āe modī- | -cūm flŭ- | -ēns Aūrā, | nēc vēr- | -gēns lā- | -tus. Sen Œd. 887.

NOTE. This measure is the same as the acephalous iambic dimeter (see § 314, VIII.), and it is not important whether it be regarded as iambic of trochaic.

### CHORIAMBIC METRE.

§ 316. (a.) In a pure choriambic verse each metre except the last is a choriambus, and the last an Iambic syzygy.

 ${\bf Note}. \ \ \, {\bf A}$  spondee and iambus, i. e. a third epitrite, are sometimes used in place of the Iambic syzygy.

- (b.) An epichoriambic verse is composed of one or more choriambi with some other foot, especially a ditrochee or a second epitrite, joined with it.
- I. The choriambic pentameter consists of a spondee, three choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Tũ nẽ | quæsiĕrīs, | scīrĕ nĕfās, | quēm mihī, quêm tībī., Hor. Od. 1, 11, 1.

II. The choriambic tetrameter consists of three choriambi, or feet of eqnal length, and a Bacchius; as,

Omně němůs | cům flůvíis, | omně cănāt | profuudum. Claud.

2. In this verse Horace substituted a spondee for the iambus contained in the first choriambus; as,

Tê dess 5- | -ro, Sybarin | cur properes | amando. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 2.

- 3. Some scan this verse as an epichoriambic tetrameter catalectic, beginning with the second epitrite.
- III. 1. The Asclepiadic tetrameter (invented by the poet Asclepia les) consists of a spondee, two choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Mæcē- | -ras, atavīs | ēdītē rēg- | -ībus. Hor. Od. 1, 1. 1.

- 2. This form is invariably observed by Horace; but other poets some.ames, though rarely, make the first foot a dactyl.
  - 3. The casural pause occurs at the end of the first choriambus.
- 4. This measure is sometimes scanned as a dactylic pentameter catalectic. See § 311, III. Thus,
  - Mæcē- | -nās, ătă- | vīs | ēdītē | rēgībus.
- IV. 1. The choriambic trimeter, or Glyconic (invented by the poet Glyco), consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and an iambus; as, Sic të | dîvă pŏtëns | Cỹpri... Hor. Od. 1, 3, 1.
  - 2. The first foot is sometimes an iambus or a trochee.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, the verse might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. Thus, Sie të | divă po- | -tens Cypri.
- V. 1. The choriambic trimeter catalectic, or Pherecratic (so called from the poet Pherecrates), is the Glyconic deprived of its final syllable, and consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable; as,
  - Grăto, | Pỹrrhă, sũb ân- | -tro. Hor. Od. 1, 5, 3.
  - 2. The first foot was sometimes a trochee or an anapest, rarely an iambus.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, this measure might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. See § 312, VI.
- The Pherecratic subjoined to the Glyconic produces the Priapean verse. See § 310, II.
- VI. 1. The choriambic dimeter consists of a choriambus and a Bacchius; as, Lỹdĩá dĩc | pĕr ömnês. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 1.
- 2. This verse is by some called the choriambic dimeter catalectic. Cf. § 316, (a.)

#### IONIC METRE.

- § 317. I. The Ionic a majore, or Sotadic, (from the poet Sotădes), consists of three greater Ionics and a spondee.
- 1. The Ionic feet, however, are often changed into ditrochees, and either of the two long syllables in those feet into two short ones; as,

Hās, cūm gēmī- | -nā cōmpēdē, | dēdīcāt cā- | -tēnās, Sātūrnē, tī- | -bī Zōĭlŭs, | ānnūlōs prī- | -ōrēs. Mart.

Hence the following is its scale:—



Note. The final syllable, by § 301, note, may be short.

II. 1. The Ionic a minore consists generally of verses of three or four feet, which are all smaller Ionics; as,

Puer ales, | tībī tēlas, | operosæ- | -que Minervæ... Hor. Od. 3, 12, 4.

2. In this verse, as in the anapæstic, no place is assigned to the pause; because, since the metres, if rightly constructed, end with a word, the effect of a pause will be produced at the end of each metre.

### COMPOUND METRES.

- § 318. Compound metre is the union of two species of metre in the same verse.
- I. The dactylico-iambic metre or Elegiambus consists of a dactylic penthemimeris (312, VII.), followed by an iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Scrībere | vērsīcu- | -lēs | amē- | -re per- | -culsum | gravī. Hor. Epod. 11, 2.

II. The iambico-dactylic metre or Iambelegus consists of the same members as the preceding, but in a reversed order; as,

Nīvēs- | -que de- | -dūcunt | Jovem : || nunc mare, | nunc silu- | -æ. Hor. Epod. 13, 2.

Note. The members composing this and the preceding species of verse are often written in separate verses.

III. The greater Alcaic consists of an iambic penthemimeris, i. e. of two iambic feet and a long catalectic syllable, followed by a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

Vides | ŭt al- | -ta | stet nive can- | -didum. Her. Od. 1, 9, 1.

Remark 1. The first foot is often a spondee.

Rem. 2. The cæsura uniformly occurs after the catalectic syllable.

Rem. 3. This verse is sometimes so scanned as to make the last two feet dactyls.

IV. The dactylico-trochaic or Archilochian heptameter, consists of the dactylic tetrameter a priore (§ 312), followed by three trochees; as,

Solvitur | acris hi- | -ems gra- | -ta vice | veris | et Fa- | -vont. Hor. Od. 1, 4, 1.

Remark. The cæsura occurs between the two members.

V. The dactylico-trochaic tetrameter or lesser Alcaic, consists of two dactyls, followed by two trochees, i. e. of a dactylic dimeter followed by a trochaic monometer; as,

Lēvīā | pērsonu- | -ēre | sāxā. Hor. Od. 1, 17, 12.

## COMBINATION OF VERSES IN POEMS.

- § 319. 1. A poem may consist either of one kind of verse only or of a combination of two or more kinds.
- A poem in which only one kind of verse is employed, is called carmen monocolon; that which has two kinds, dicolon; that which has three kinds, tricolon.
- 3. When the poem returns, after the second line, to the same verse with which it began, it is called distrophon; when after the third line, tristrophon; and when after the fourth, tetrastrophon.
- 4. The several verses which occur before the poem returns to the kind of verse with which it began, constitute a stanza or strophe.
- 5. A poem consisting of two kinds of verse, when the stanza contains two verses, is called dicolon distrophon, (see § 320, 3); when it contains three, dico-

lon tristrophon, (Auson. Profess. 21); when four, dicolon tetrastrophon, (§ 320, 2); and when five, dicolon pentastrophon.

 A poem consisting of three kinds of verse, when the stanza contains three verses, is called tricolon tristrophon, (§ 320, 15); when four, tricolon tetrastrophon, (§ 320, 1).

### HORATIAN METRES.

§ 320. The different species of metre used by Horace in his lyric compositions are twenty. The various forms in which he has employed them, either separate or in conjunction, are nineteen, arranged, according to the order of preference given to them by the poet, in the following

#### SYNOPSIS.

 Two greater Alcaics (§ 318, III.), one Archilochian iambie dimeter hypermeter (§ 314, VII.), and one lesser Alcaic (§ 318, V.); as,

Vidēs, ŭt āltā stēt nīvē cāndīdum Sōrāctē, nēc jām sūstīnēānt ŏnūs Sīlvē lābūrāntēs, gēlūquē Flūminā cōnstītērint ācūto.

(Lib. 1, 9.)

REMARK. This is called the Horatian stanza, because it seems to have been a favorite with Horace, being used in thirty-seven of his odes.

 Three Sapphics (§ 315, II.) and one Adonic (§ 312, VIII.); as, Jām sătīs tērrīs nīvīs ātquē dīræ

Grandīnīs mīsīt pātēr, ēt, rūbēntē Dēxtērā sācrās jācūlātūs ārces, Tērrūīt ūrbem.

(Lib. 1, 2.)

3. One Glyconic (§ 316, 4v.) and one Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.); as,

Sīc tē Dīvá pötēns Cýpri, Sīc frātrēs Hělěnæ, lücīdā sīdēra...

(Lib. 1, 3)

One iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Ibīs Lībūrnīs īntēr āltā nāvīum, Amīcē, propūgnācula.

(Epod. 1.)

5. Three Asclepiadics (§ 316, III.) and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

Scrībērīs Vārīō fōrtīs, ēt hōstīum Victor, Mæōnīi cārmīnīs ālīti, Quām rēm cūmquē fērōx nāvībūs āūt ēquis Mīlēs, tē dūcē, gēssērit.

(Lib. 1, 6.)

6. Two Asclepiadics (§ 316, III.), one Pherecratic (§ 316, v.), and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

Diānām, tēnēræ, dicītē vīrgīnes: Intōnsūm, pūērī, dicītē Cynthium, Lātōnāmquē sūprēmo Dīlēctām pēnītūs Jŏvl.

(Lib. 1, 21)

7. The Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.) alone; as,

Mæcenas atavis edite regibus.

(Lib. 1, 1.)

8. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, 1.) and one dactylic tetrameter a posteriore (§ 312, v.); as,

Laudabunt alii claram Rhodon, aut Mitylenen, Aut Ephësum, bimarisve Corinthi...

(Lib. 1, 7.)

The choria nbic pentameter (§ 316, 1.) alone; as, Tũ nẽ quæsieris, scire nefas, quêm mihi, quêm tibi... (Lib. 1, 11.)

10. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, 1.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Nox erat, et celo fulgebat lună sereno Inter minora sidera.

(Epod 15.)

 The iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.) containing spondees; as, Jām, jam ēffīcācī dō mānūs scientiæ. (Epod. 17.)

One choriambic dimeter (§ 316, vi.) and one choriambic tetra meter (§ 316, II.) with a variation; as,

Lydia, dic, per omnes Tē Dēōs ōrō, Sỳbărīn cũr prŏpĕrās ămāndo... (Lib. 1, 8.)

 One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one iambic trimeter without spondees (§ 314, I.); as,

> Āltērā jām tērītūr bēllīs cīvīlībūs ætas; (Epōd. 16.) Sŭīs et īpsa Roma vīrībūs ruit.

 One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one dactylic penthe. mimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

Diffügere nives: redeunt jam gramina campis,

Ārborībūsauē comæ. (Lib. 4, 7.)

 One iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.), one dactylic trimeter catalectic (§ 312, VII.), and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Pēttī, nīhīl mē, sīcut autea, juvat Scribere versiculos,

Amōre pērcūlsūm gravi. (Epoa. 11.)

Note. The second and third lines are often written as one verse. See § 318, 1.

16. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.), one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.), and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

Hörrīdā tēmpēstās cælūm contrāxīt; ět imbres Nivēsque dēdūcūnt Jovem:

Nunc mare, nunc siluæ...

(Epod. 13.)

Note. The second and third lines of this stanza, also, are often written as one verse. See § 318, II.

 One Archilochian heptameter (§ 318, IV.) and one iambic tri meter catalectic (§ 314, v.); as,

Sölvitür acris hiêms grata vice vêris et Fávönî, Trăhuntque siccas machinæ cărinas. (Lib. 1. 4.)

 One iambic dimeter acephalous (§ 314, VIII.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic (§ 314, v.); as,

Non ebur neque aureum

Měa rěnidět in domo lácunar. (Lib. 2, 18.)

 The Ionic a minore (§ 317, II.) alone; as, Misérarun est néque amori dare ludum, néque dulci... (Lib. 3, 12.)

## § 321. A METRICAL KEY TO THE ODES OF HORACE

Containing, in alphabetic order, the first words of each, with a reference to the numbers in the preceding Synopsis, where the metre is explained.

Æli, vetustoNo. 1	Mollis inertia
Æquam memento 1	Montium custos 2
Albi, ne doieas 5	Motum ex Metello 1
Altěra jam teritur13	Musis amīcus. 1
Angustam, amīce 1	Natis in usum 1
At, O deorum 4	Ne forte credas 1
Audivēre, Lyce 6	Ne sit ancillæ 2
Bacchum in remotis 1	Nolis longa feræ 5
Beātus ille 4	Nondum subacta 1
Cœlo supīnas 1	Non ebur neque aureum18
Cœlo tonantem 1	Non semper imbres 1
Cur me querēlis 1	Non usitātā 1
Delicta majorum	Non vides, quanto
Descende cœl:	
Disuam tunium	Nox erat10
Diānam, teněræ 6	Nullam, Vare, sacrâ 9
Diffugëre nives14	Nullus argento 2
Dive, quem proles 2	Nunc est bibendum 1
Divis orte bonis 5	O crudēlis adhuc 3
Donārem patěras 7	0 diva, gratum 1
Donee gratus eram tibi 3	O fons Bandusiæ 6
Eheu! fugāces 1	O matre pulchrā1
Est mihi nonum 2	O nata mecum 1
Et ture et fidibus	O navis, referent 6
Exēgi monumentum 7	
Extremum Tanaim	
	O Venus, regina 2
Faune, nymphārum 2	Odi prof anum 1
Festo quid potius die 3	Otium Divos 2
Hercŭlis ritu 2	Parcius junctas 2
Horrida tempestas	Parcus Deōrum1
Ibis Liburnis 4	Parentis olim 4
Icci, beātis	Pastor quum traheret 5
Ille et nefasto	Percicos odi, puer 2
tmpios parræ 2	Petti, nihil me
Inclūsam Danăen 5	Phœbe, silvarumque 2
Intactis opulentior	Phœbus volentem
Integer vitæ	Pindărum quisquis 2
Intermissa, Venus, diu	Possinam disquis
Tom jom office of	Poscimur: si quid 2
Jam jam efficāci11	Quæ cura Patrum
Jam pauca arātro 1	Qualem ministrum 1
Jam satis terris 2	Quando repostum 4
Jam veris comites 5	Quantum distet ab Inacho 8
Justum et tenācem 1	Quem tu, Melpomene 3
Laudābunt alii 8	Quem virum aut heroa 2
Lupis et agnis 4	Quid bellicosus 1
Lydia, dic, per omnes12	Quid dedicatum 1
Mæcēnas atāvis 7	Quid fles, Asterie 6
Malā solūta 4	Quid immerentes 4
Martiis cæiebs	Quid obserātis11
Mater sæva Cupidinum 3	Quid tibi vis
Mercuri, facunde 2	Quis desiderio
Mercuri, nam te	
Miserarum est	Quis multa gracilis
Daserarum est	Quo me, Bacche 3

#### 360 PROSODY.—VERSIFICATION—HORATIAN METRES. § 521

Quo, quo, scelesti rultis No. 4	Tu ne quæsiĕris
Quum tu, Lydia 3	Tyrrhēna regum 1
Rectius vives 2	Ulla si juris
Rogāre longo 4	Uxor paupěris Ibýci 3
Scribēris Vario 5	Velox amœnum 1
Septimi, Gades 2	Vides, ut altā
Sic te Diva potens 3	Vile potābis 2
Solvitur acris hiems	Vitas hinnuleo 6
Te maris et terræ 8	Vixi puellis 1

The following are the single metres used by Horace in his lyric compositions, viz:-

- Dactylic Hexameter.
   Dactylic Tetrameter a posteriöri.
   Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic.

- 4. Adonic.
  5. Trimeter Iambic.
  6. Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.
  7. Iambic Dimeter. 8. Archilochian Iambic Dimeter Hy-
- permeter.
- 9. Iambic Dimeter Acepnalous.
- 10. Sapphic.

- 11. Choriambic Pentameter.
  12. Choriambic Tetrameter.
  13. Asclepiadic Tetrameter.
  14. Glyconic.
  15. Pherecratic.
  16. Choriambic Dimeter.
  17. Ionic aminore.
  18. Greater Alcaic.
  19. Archilochian Heptameter.
  20. Lesser Alcaic.

## APPENDIX.

### GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

- § 322. Certain deviations from the regular form and construction of words, are called *grammatical figures*. These may relate either to Orthography and Etymology, or to Syntax.
  - I. FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

These are distinguished by the general name of metaplasm.

- Prosthesis is the prefixing of a letter or syllable to a word; as, gnātus, for nātus: titāl, for tāli. These, however, are rather the ancient customary forms, from which those now in use were formed by aphærèsis.
- Aphærèsis is the taking of a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'st, for est; rābönem, for arrābönem.
- Epenthësis is the insertion of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word;
   as, ālitāum, for ālitum; Māvors, for Mars.
- 4. Syncôpe is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, detim, for debrum; mehm factim, for mebrum factorum; sæcla, for sæcula; flesti, for flvisti; répostus, for répôsitus; apsris, for aspéris.
- Crasis is the contraction of two vowels into one; as, cogo, for ovago; nil, for nihil.
- Paragoge is the addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as, med, for me; claudier, for claudi.
- Apocope is the omission of the final letter or syllable of a word; as, mēn', for mēne; Antôni, for Antônii.
- 8. Anithèsis is the substitution of one letter for another; as, olli, for illi, optimus, for optimus; afficio, for adficio. O is often thus used for u, especially atter v; as, voltus, for vultus; servom, for servum. So after qu; as,  $\alpha quom$ , for  $\alpha quum$ .
- 9. Metathēsis is the changing of the order of letters in a word; as, pistris, for pristis.

### II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

- **323.** The figures of Syntax are ellipsis, pleonasm, enalläge, and hyperbäton.
- 1. (a.) Ellipsis is the omission of some word or words in a sentence; as,
- Aiunt, scil. homines. Dārius Hystaspis, scil. filius. Cano, scil. ego. Quid multa? scil. dīcam. Ex quo, scil. tempore. Ferina, scil. caro.
  - (b.) Ellipsis includes asyndeton, zeugma, syllepsis, and prolepsis.
- (1.) Asyndeton is the omission of the copulative conjunction; as, ábiit, excessit, évasit, érapit seil. et. Cic. This is called in pure Latin dissolutio.

- (2.) (a.) Zeugma is the uniting of two nouns or two infinitives it a verb, which, as to its meaning, is applicable to only one of them; as, Pācem an bethem gêrens; (Sall.) where gêrens is applicable to bellum only, while pācem requires āgêre. Semperne in sangulue, ferro, flujā versābīmur? (Id.) where the verb does not properly apply to ferro.
- (b.) Nego is often thus used with two propositions, one of which is affirmative; as, Negant Cossirem mansirum, postalātāque interposita esse, for dicuntque postalāta. Cic. See § 209, Note 4.
- (c.) When an adjective or verb, referring to two or more nouns, agrees with one, and is understood with the rest, the construction is also sometimes called zeugma, but more commonly syllepsis; as, Et génus, et virtus, nisi cum re, villor alga est. Hor. Ciper tibi salvus et hedi. Virg. Quamvis ille niger, quamvis tu candida esses. Id.
- (3.) Syllepsis is when an adjective or verb, belonging to two or more nouns of different genders, persons, or numbers, agrees with one rather than another; as. Artôntii noëtitie prient Baucis, timidusque Philemon. Ovid. Procumbit aterque pronns hāmi, i. e. Deucation et Pyrrha. Id. Sustillmus māmus et ēgo et Balbus. Cic. So, Ipse cum fratre ādesse jussi sūmus. Id. Projectisque āmicālo et litēris. Curt. See §§ 205, R. 2, and 209, R. 12, (3.) and (7.)
- (4 Prolegsis is when the parts, differing in number or person from the wince, are placed after it, the verb or adjective not being repeated; as, Principes utrinque pugnum virbent, ab Sibinis Mettius Curtius, ab Rômânis Hostus Hostilius. Liv. Bôni quônium conventimus ambo, tu calimos inflare, êgo dicêre versus. Vir.
- (a.) Pleonasm is using a greater number of words than is necessary to express the meaning; as,
- Sic öre lòcūta est. Virg. Qui mūgis vēre vincēre quam diu impērāre mālit. Liv Nēmo ūnus. Cic. Forte fortūnā. Id. Prūdens sciens. Ter.
- (b.) Under pleonasm are included parelcon, polysynděton, hendiădys, and periphrăsis.
- (1.) Pitrelcon is the addition of an unnecessary syllable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; as, êgômet, âgêdum, fortassean. Such additions, aowever, usually modify the meaning in some degree.
- (2.) Pôlýsyuléton is a redundancy of conjunctions; as, Una Eurusque Nôtusque ruunt créberque prôcellis Africus. Virg.
- (3.) Hendindys is the expression of an idea by two nouns connected by etque, or aque, instead of a noun and a limiting adjective or genitive; as, Fateris libāmus et auro, for aureis pātēris. Virg. Libro et silvestri sübere clausam for libro sābēris. 1d. Cristis et auro. Ovid. Met. 3, 32.
- (4.) Përiphrësis or circumlòcutio is a circuitous mode of expression; as, The nëri futus virum, i. e. aqni. Virg.
- (a.) Enalläge is a change of words, or a substitution of one gen der, number, case, person, tense, mood, or voice of the same word for another.
- (b.) Enallăge includes antimeria, heterosis, antiptosis, synĕsis, and anacolūthon.
- (1.) Antiméria is the use of one part of speech for another, or the abstract for the concrete; as, Nostrum istud vivere triste, for nostra vita. Pers. Aliur eras. 1d. Conjugium vidébit? for conjugem. Virg.
- (2.) Hetcrösis is the use of one form of noun, pronoun, verb, etc., for another as Equ quoque una pereo, quod mihi est carius, for qui mihi sum carior. Tet

Römānus prælio victor, for Römēni victores. Liv. Many words are used by the poets in the plural instead of the singular; as, colla, corda, öra, etc. See § 98. Me truncus illapsus cêrchro sustilērat, for sustilisset. Hot. See § 259, R. C.

(3.) Antiptōsis is the use of one case for another; as, Cui nunc cognōmen Iūlo, for Iūlus. Virg. § 204, R. 8. Uxor invicti Jovis esse nescis, for te esse uxō.

rem. Hor. § 210, R. 6.

- (4.) Synésis, or synthésis, is adapting the construction to the sense of a word, either than to its gender or number; as, Sübeunt Figora jüventus auxilio tartit. Stat. Concursus populi mirantium quid rei est. Liv. Pars in criscen acti. Sall. U?i illie est sciens, qui me perdudit l'er. Li mes mitaine réfert, qui sum nâtu maximus. B. See § 208, R. 2, (1) and (3), and § 206, (12.)
- (5.) Anàcoliathon is a disagreement in construction between the latter and former part of a sentence; as, Nam nos omnes, quibus est àlicuade àliquis objectus làbos, omne quod est intérea tempus, prinspuam id rescitem est, lucro est. Ter. In this example, the writer began as if he intended to say lucro hobimus, and ended as if he had said nôtis omnibus, leaving nos omnes without its verb.
- 4. (a.) Hyperbaton is a transgression of the usual order of words or clauses.
- (b.) Hyperbăton includes ănastrophe, hysteron proteron, hypallage, synchysis, tnesis, and părenthesis.
- (1.) Anaströphe is an inversion of the order of two words; as, Franstra per et rēmos, for per transtra. Virg. Collo dāre brāchia circum, for circumdāre. Id. Noz ērīt ūna sūper, for sūpērērīt. Ovid. Et fācit āre, for ārēfācit. Lucr.
- (2.) Hysteron proteron is reversing the natural order of the sense; as, Moriamur, et in média arma ruàmus. Virg. Valet atque vivit. Ter.
- (3.) Hýpalláge is an interchange of constructions; as, În nóva fert ântmus mútaits dicère formas corpòra (or corpòra mútata in nóvas formas. Ovid. Dâre classibus Austros, for dâre classes astris. Virg.
- (4.) Synchysis is a confused position of words; as, Saxa vocant Itāli, mēdiis quæ in fluctībus, āras, for quæ saxa in mēdiis fluctībus, Itāli vocant āras. Virg.
- (5) Thesis or ducope is the separation of the parts of a compound word; as, Septem subjecta trioni gens, for septentrioni. Virg. Quoe me cumque vocant terne. Id. Per mith, per, juquan, gratum feceris. Cic.
- (6.) Părenthêsis or dialgisis is the insertion of a word or words in a sentence interrupting the natural connection; as, Titŷre dum rêdeo, (brêvis est via,) pasce câpellas. Virg.

REMARK. To the above may be added archaism and Hellenism, which belong both to the figures of etymology and to those of syntax.

- (1.) Archaism is the use of ancient forms or constructions; as, aulāi, for aulæ; sēnāti, for sidātās; funt, for sit; prohibesso, for prohibuēro; impetrasēre, for impetrātārum esse; fārier, for fār; nēnu, for non; endo, for in;—Opēram abūttur, for ôpērā. Ter. Quid tibi hanc cūrāto est rem? Plaut.
- (2.) Hellenism is the use of Greek forms or constructions; as, Hélène, for Hélèna; Antiphon, for Antipho; auvis (gen.), for aura; Pallàdos, Pullàda, for Pallàdis, Pallàdiam; Tròisin, Tròiada, for Tròidbus, Tròides;—Abstincto iràrum. Hor. Tempus désistère pugnæ. Virg.
- § 324. (1.) To the grammatical figures may not improperly be subjoined cerain others, which are often referred to in philological works, and which are called

### TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

(2.) A rhetorical figure is a mode of expression different from the direct and simple way of expressing the same sense. The turning of a word from its original and customary meaning, is called a trope.

- 1. (a.) A metaphor is the transferring of a word from the object to which it properly belongs, and applying it to another, to which that object las some-analegy; as Ridet åger, The field smiles. Virg. Ætas aurea, The golden age. Ovid. Naufrägia fortäne, The wreck of fortune. Cie. Mentis coili, The eyes of the mind. Id. Virus aumman glorius stimülis concitat. The harshness of a metaphor is often softened by means of quasi, tamquam, quidam, or ut ita dicam; as, in an obilosophia quasi tabernacillum vite sue collocarunt. Id. Opimum quoddam ... tamquam adipatæ dictionis génus. Id.
- (b.) Cătachrēsis or ăbūsio is a bold or harsh metaphor; as, Vir grēgis ipse căper. Virg. Eurus per Sicălas ĕquitāvit undas. Hor.
- 2. Metonymy is substituting the name of an object for that of another to which it has a certain relation; as the cause for the effect, the container for what is contained, the property for the substance, the sign for the thing signified, and their contraries; the parts of the body for certain affections; the possessor for the thing possessed; place and time for the persons or things which they comprise, etc.; as, Mortales, for homines. Virg. Amor divi Martis, i. e. beld: Id. Frieges Certerien appelliams, vinum audem Liberum. Cic. Oxio virgliam meam tibi trādēre, i. e. meam cāram. Id. Pallida mors. Hor. Hausit pāterum, i. e. vinum. Virg. Vinu coronaut, i. e. pādērum. Id. Necte termos colores; i. e. tria rāla diversi colbris. Id. Cedant arma Gega, i. e. bellum pāct. Cic. Saccula mitescent, i. e. homines in sacculis. Virg. Front Pāctavius ve Nestora totum. Juv. Doctrīnā Graccia nois sūprivāda, for forect sāprirabant. Cic. Pāgi centum Sucvorum ad ripas lihēm consēdērant, for pāgorum incobe. Caes. Tempora amicorum, for res adecrase. Cic. Claudius lige preclidāros virallis pēpendit, for Claudii preedium. Suet. Vica ad Jānum mēdium sēdentes, for Jāni vi-cum. Cic.
- 3. Synecdoche is putting a whole for a part, a genus for a species, a singular for a plural, and their contraries; also the material for the thing made of it a definite for an indefinite number, etc.; as, Fouten ferobant. Id. Tectum, for domus. Id. Armāto milite complent, for armātis militibus. Id. Ferrum, for glādus. Id. Qui Corinthiis operibus abundant, i. e. rāsis. Cic. Urbern, urbern, ma Rāje, cole, i. e. Rōmum. Cic. Centum puer artum, i. e. multirum.
- 4. Irony is the intentional use of words which express a sense contrary to that which the writer or speaker means to convey; as, Salve bone vir, carasti probe. Ter. Egregiam vero laudem, et spolia ampla réfertis, tuque, puerque taus. Virg.
- Hipperbôle is the magnifying or diminishing of a thing beyond the truth;
   as, Ipse arduus, altăque pulsat sidera. Virg. Ocior Euro. Id.
- Mētālepsis is the including of several tropes in one word; as, Post āliquot žristas. Virg. Here aristas is put for messes, and this for annos.
- (a.) Allegory is a consistent series of motaphors, designed to illustrate one subject by another; as, O nāvis, rēfērent in māre te novi fluctus. Hor.
- (b.) An obscure allegory or riddle is called an anigma; as, Dic, quibus in terris tres pateat cali spittium non amplius ulnas. Virg.
- 8. Antönömäsia is using a proper noun for a common one, and the contrary; as, Irus et est subito, qui môclo Cressus êrat, for pauper and dives. Ovid. So, by periphrasis, pôtor Rhôdâm, for Gallus. Hor. Eversor Carthāginis, for Scipio. Quint. Eliquentãe princeps, for Cicero. Id. Tydides, for Diômēdes. Virg.
- Litôtes is a mode of expressing something by denying the contrary; as, Non laudo, I blame. Ter. Non innoxia verba. Virg.
- Antiphrásis is using a word in a sense opposite to its proper meaning, as, Auri sacra fămes. Virg.
- 11. Euphemism is the use of softened language to express what is offensive or distressing; as, Si quid accidisset Casări, i. e. si mortuus esset. Vell.
- 12. Antinuclisis or punning is the use of the same word in different senses, as, Quis neget £noce natum de stirpe Neronen? Sustulit hie matrem, sustulit patrem. Epigr. Amari jucurahum est, si curetur ne quid insit ămări. Cio.

- 13. Anáphóra or épánáphóra is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses; as, Nihilne te nocturnum præsidium pálátii, nihil urbis rigiliae, nihil timor pópáli, etc. Cic. Te, dukis conjux, te, solo in litore sécum, te, véniente die, te, décédente, cânébat. Virg.
- 14. Epistróphe is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses; as, Panos pópulus Românus justitià vicit, armis vicit, libéralitäte vicit. Cic. In pure Latin this figure is called conversio.
- 15. Symplöce is the repetition of a word at the beginning, and of another at the end, of successive clauses, and hence it includes the anaphöra and the epiströphe; as, Quis legem tälit? Rullus: Quis mājörem popāli partem suffrāgüs privāvit? Rullus: Quis cönātiis præfuit? Idem Rullus. Cic.
- Epänälepsis is a repetition of the same word or sentence after intervening words or clauses. See Virg. Geor. II. 4—7.
- 17. Anādiplosis is the use of the same word at the end of one clause, and the beginning of another; as, Sēgultur pulcherrimus Astur, Astur ēguo f ūdens. Virg. A. 10, 180. Nune ētima audes in hōrum conspectum vēnīre, vēnīre audes in hōrum conspectum? Cic. This is sometimes called ēpānastrophe.
- 18. Epănădiplôsis is the use of the same word both at the beginning and end of s sentence; as, Crescit ămor nummi, quantum ipsa pēcūnia crescit. Juv.
- 19. Epinādos or rēgressio is the repetition of the same words in an inverted order as, Crūdēlis matter māgis, an puer improbus ille? Improbus ille puer, crūdēlis tu quoque, māter. Virg.
- 20. Epizeuxis is a repetition of the same word for the sake of emphasis; as, Excitate, excitate eum ab inféris. Cic. Ab Côrydon, Côrydon, que te démentia cépit l'Virg. Ibinus, thimus, utcumque pracédés. Hor.
- 21. Climax is a gradual amplification by means of a continued anadiplosis, each successive clause beginning with the conclusion of that which precedes it; as, Quæ reliqua spes manet libertátis, si illis et quad libet, licet; et quad licet, possunt; et quad possunt, audent; et quad audent, vobis molestum non est? Cic. This, in pure Latin, is called grádátic.
- 22. Încrémentum is an amplification without a strict climax; as, Fácinus est, vinciri civem Rômânum; scélus, verbérāri; prôpe parricidium, nêcâri; quid dicam in crúcem tolli? Cic.
- 23. Polyptiton is the repetition of a word in different cases, genders, numbers, tenses, etc.; as, Jam clipeus clipeis, umbone répellitur umbo; ense minax ensis, péle pes, et cuspide cuspis. Stat.
- 24. Paregmēnon is the use of several words of the same origin, in one sentence; as, Abesse non pôtest, qui ĕjusdem hôminis sit, qui improbos probet, probos improbure. Cic. Istam pugnam pugnābo. Plaut.
- 25. Părônômâsia is the use of words which resemble each other in sound as, Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissimus. Plaut. Cirem δομάνωπ artium bônārum partium. Cic. Amantes sunt āmentes. Ter. This figure is sometimes called agnôminātio.
- 26. Hômospröphèron or alliteration is the use in the same sentence of several words beginning with the same letter; as, O Tite, tate Titi, thi tanta, tijranne, tälisti. Enn. Neu patrie võltdas in viscèra veritte tries. Virg.
- 27. Antithēsis is the placing of different or opposite words or sentiments in contrast; as, Ilijus brātibnis difficilius est exitum quam principium invēnire. Cic. Cæsar bēnēfīciis ac munificentiā magnus hābēbātur; integritāte vitæ Cato. Sall.
- 28. Oxymoron unites words of contrary significations, thus producing a seeming contradiction; as, Concordia discors. Hor. Quam tacent, clamant. Gic.
- Sýnônýmia is the use of different words or expressions having the same inport; as, Non féram, non pátiar, non sinam. Cic. Prômitto, récipio, sponde. 1d.

- 86 Părăbola or Simile is the comparison of one thing with another; as, Rêpente te, tamquam serpens e latibulis, oculis entnentibus, inflato collo, tumidis cervicibus, intulisti. Cic.
- 31. Erōtēsis is an earnest question, and often implies a strong affirmation of the contrary; as, Créditis avectos hostes! Virg. Heu! quæ me æquòra possunt accipere ! Id.
- Epănorthôsis or Correctio is the recalling of a word, in order to place a stronger or more significant one in its stead; as, Filium unicum adolescentulum habeo: ah! quid dixi? me habere? Imo habui. Ter.
- Apösiöpēsis, Rēticentia, or Interruptio, is leaving a sentence unfinished in consequence of some emotion of the mind; as, Quos ego—sed mötos præstat componère fluctus. Virg.
- 34. Prosopopaia or personification represents inanimate things as acting or speaking, and persons dead or absent as alive and present; as, Quæ (patria) tēcum, Cătilina, sic ăgit. Cio. Virtus sūmit aut ponit secures. Hor.
- 35. Apostrophe is a turning off from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing; as, Vi potitur; quid non mortalia pectora cogis, auri sacra fames! Virg.
- 36. Părăleipsis is a pretended omission of something, in order to render it more observed. See Cic. Cat. 1, 6, 14.
- Epiphônêma or Acclâmatio is an exclamation or grave reflection on something said before; as, Tantæ mölis érat Römanam condère gentem. Virg.
- 38. Ecphonésis or Exclâmâtio shows some violent emotion of the mind; as, O tempora! O mores!
- Apória, Diăpărēsis, or Dăbitătio, expresses a doubt in regard to what is to be said or done; as, Quos accedam, aut quos appellem? Sall.
- 40. Prolepsis is the anticipation of an objection before it is made, or of an event before it occurs; as, Vérum anceps pugnes fuerat fortuna. Fuisset: Quem mētui moritūra? Virg.
- § 325. To the figures of rhetoric may be subjoined the following terms, used to designate defects or blemishes in style :-
- 1. Barbarism is either the use of a foreign word, or a violation of the rules of orthography, etymology, or prosody; as, rigorosus, for rigidus or séverus; dominus, for dominus; davi, for dédi.
- 2. Solecism is a violation of the rules of syntax; as, Venus pulcher; vos invidemus.
- 3. Neoterism is the use of words or phrases introduced by authors living subsequently to the best ages of Latinity; as, murdrum, a murder; constabila rius, a constable.
- 4. Tautology is a repetition of the same meaning in different words; as, Jam pos ăciem, et prœlia, et hostem poscitis. Sil.
- 5. Amphibòlia is the use of equivocal words or constructions; as, Gallus, Gaul, or a cock. Aio te, Æācīda, Romanos vincere posse. Quint.
- 6. Idiotism is a construction peculiar to one or more languages: thus, the ablative after comparatives is a Latinism. When a peculiarity of one language is invitated in another, this is also called vibotism. Thus, Mitte mili verbum, instand of Fac me certiorem, is an Anglicism.

### ROMAN MODE OF RECKONING.

### I. OF TIME.

### 1. The Roman Day.

§ 326. (1.) With the Romans, as with us, the day was either civil or natural. Their civil day, like ours, extended from midnight to midnight. The natural day continued from sunrise to sunset, as, on the other hand, the night extended from sunset to sunrise. The natural day and night were each divided into twelve equal parts or bours, which were consequently of different length, according to the varying length of the days and nights in the successive seasons of the year. It was only at the equinox that the diurnal and nocturnal hours of the Romans were equal to each other, as each was then equal to the twenty-fourth part of the civil day.

(2.) In the Roman camp the night was further divided into four watches (vigiliae), consisting each of three Roman hours, the second and fourth watches ending respectively at midnight and at sunrise

#### 2. The Roman Month and Year.

(1.) The calendar of the Romans, as rectified by Julius Cæsar, agreed with our own in the number of months, and of the days in each, according to the following table:—

 Jānuārius . 31 days.
 Maius . 31 days.
 September 30 days.

 Februārius 28 or 29.
 Jūnius . 30 " Octōber . 31 "

 Martius . . 31 days.
 Quintilis 31 " November 30 "

 Aprilis . . 30 " Sextilis 31 " Dēcember 31 "

In early times the Roman year began with March, and the names Quintilis, Sextilis, September, etc., indicated the distance of those months from the commencement of the year. Quintilis and Sextilis were afterwards called Jūlius and Augustus in honor of the first two emperors. The Romans, instead of reckoning in an uninterrupted series from the first to the last day of a month, had in each month three points or periods from which their days were counted—the Calends, the Nones, and the Ides. The Calends (Cūlende), were alloways the first day of the month. The Nones (Nōne), were the fifth, and the Ides (Idus), the thirteenth; except in March, May, July, and October, when the Nones occurred on the seventh day, and the Ides on the fifteenth.

(2.) They always counted forward, from the day whose date was to be determined, to the next Calends, Nones, or Ides, and designated the day by its distance before such point. After the first day of the month, therefore, they began to reckon so many days before the Nones; after the Nones, so many days before the Ides, so many before the Calends, of the next month.

Thus, the second of January was denoted by quarto Nonas Jānuārias, of Jānuāria, soi. die ante: the third, tertio Nonas; the fourth, pridie Nonas; and the fifth, Nonas. The sixth was denoted by octāvo Idus; the seventh

septimo Idus; and so on to the thirteenth, on which the Ides fell. The four-teenth was denoted by undevigesimo Gilendas Februārias, or Februārii; and so on to the end of the month.

- (3.) The day preceding the Calends, Nones, and Ides, was termed pridie Calendas, etc., scil. ante: in designating the other days, both the day of the Calends, etc., and that whose date was to be determined, were reckoned; hence the second day before the Calends, etc., was called tertio, the third quarto, etc.
- (4.) To reduce the Roman calendar to our own, therefore, when the day is between the "2:hads and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, it is necessary to take one from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Nones or the Ides, and to subtract the remainder from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fell in the given month.

Thus, to determine the day equivalent to *IV. Nonas Jānuārias*, we take 1 from 4, and subtract the remainder, 3, from 5, the day on which the Nones of January fell (i. e. 4—1=3, and 5—3=2): this gives 2, or the second of January, for the day in question. So *VI. Idus Aprilis*: the Ides of April falling upon the 13th, we take (6—1, i. e.) 5 from 13, which leaves 8 (i. e. 6—1=5, and 13—5=8): the expression, therefore, denotes the 8th of April.

(a.) In reckoning the days before the Calends, as they are not the last day of the current month, but the first of the following, it is necessary to subtract two from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Calends of the following month, and to take the remainder from the number of days in the month.

Thus, XV. Cal. Quantiles is 15—2=13, and 30—13=17, i. e. the Roman date XV. Cal. Quint is equivalent to the 17th of June.

(b.) To reduce our calendar to the Roman, the preceding method is to be reversed. Thus when the given day is between the Calends and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, (unless it be the day before the Nones or the Ides), we are to add one to the number denoting the day of the month, according to our reckoning, on which the Nones or Ides fell. But if the day is after the Ides, (unless it be the last day of the month), we must add two to the number of days in the month, and then subtract the number denoting the day of the month as expressed in our reckoning. The remainder will be the day before the Nones, Ides or Calends.

Thus to find the Roman date corresponding to the third of April, we have 5+1-3=3; the required date, therefore, is III. Non. Apr.—To find the proper Roman expression for our tenth of December we have 13+1-10=4; the date, therefore, is IV. Id. Dec.—The Roman expression for the 22d of August, in pursuance of the above rule, is found thus, 31+2-22=11, and the date is XI Cal. Sept.

- (5) In leap year, both the 24th and 25th of February were called the sixth before the Calends of March. The 24th was called dies bisextus, and the year itself annus bisextus, bissextile or leap year.
- (a.) The day after the Calends, etc., was sometimes called *postridic calendas*, etc.
- (b.) The names of the months are properly adjectives, though often used as nouns, mensis being understood

(6.) The correspondence of our calendar with that of the Romans is exhibited in the following

TABLE.

Days of	MAR. MAI.	JAN. AUG.	APR. JUN.	
our months.	Jul. Oct.	DEC.	SEPT. Nov.	FEBR.
1	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.
2 3	VI. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.
3	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
4 5 6 7	IV. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
5	III. "	Nonæ.	Nonæ.	Nonæ.
6	Pridie Non.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idus.
7	Nonæ.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "
8	VIII. Idus.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
9	VII. "	V. "	V. "	V. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	IV. "
11	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
12	IV. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
13	III. "	Idus.	Idus.	Idus.
14	Pridie Id.	XIX. Cal.	XVIII. Cal.	XVI. Cal.
15	Idus.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Cal.	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
20	XIII. "*	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XI. "	X. "	VIII. "
23	X. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	V. "
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	IV. "
27	VI. "	VI. "	V. "	Ш. "
28	V. "	V. "	IV. "	Pridie " Mar
29	IV. "	IV. "	III. "	
30	III. "	III. "	Pridie Cal.	
31	Pridie Cal.	Pridie Cal.		

(7.) In leap-year the last seven days of February were reckoned thus:-

VII. Călendas Martias.

27. IV. Cal. Mart.

bisexto Cal. Mart. 24. 25. VI. Cal. Mart. V.

26.

28. III. pridie Cal. Mart. 29.

(a.) Hence in reducing a date of February in leap-year to the Roman date, for the first 23 days we proceed according to the preceding rule in 4, (b., as if the month had only 28 days. The 24th is marked as bisexto Cal. Mart., and to obtain the unrope arrestor for the terminal call. obtain the proper expression for the remaining five days we regard the month as having 29 days. Thus the 27th of February in leap-year is 29+2-27=4, and the proper Roman expression is IV. Cal. Mart.

(b.) On the other hand, to reduce a Roman date of February in leap-year to our date we reverse the above process, and during the Nones and Ides and until the VII. Cilendas Martias we reckon the month to have only 28 days: bisexto Cal. Mart. is set down as the 24th, and for the remaining days designated as VI. V. VII. and pridic Cal. Mart. we reckon the month to have 29 days. Thus III. Cal. Mart. is 3-2=1, and 29-1=28, and the given day is equivalent to the 23th of February.

- (8) The Latins not only said tertio, pridie, etc., Cilendas, etc., but also ante them tertium, etc., Cilendas, etc.; and the latter form in Cicero and Livy is far more common than the former, and is usually written thus, a. d. III. Cal., etc.
- (9.) The expression ante diem was used as an indeclinable noun, and is joined with in and ex; as, Consul Latinas frincis in ante diem tertium thus Seculis ēdizit, The consul appointed the Latin festival for the third day before the Ides of August. Liv. Supplicatio indicate est ex ante diem quintum laus Octobres. Id. So, Ad pridie Nonas Maias. Cic.
- (10.) The week of seven days (hebdomas), was not in use among the Romans under the republic, but was introduced under the emperors. The days of the week were then named from the planets; dies Sölis, Sunday; dies Lūnz, Monday; dies Martis, Tuesday; dies Mercürii, Wednesday; dies Jövis, Thursday; dies Veheirs, Friday; dies Säturia, Saturday.
- (11.) The term nundinæ (from nörem—dies) denotes the regular market day at Rome when the country people came into the city; but it is not used for the purpose of denoting the period of eight days intervening between two successive market days.
- (12.) The year at Rome was designated by the names of the consuls for that year. Thus Virgil was born, M. Licinio Crasso et Ca. Pompeio Magno consulbus, i. e. in the year of the consulship of Crassus and Pompey. But in Roman anthors events are often dated from the year in which Rome was founded, which, according to Varro, was in the 753d year before the birth of Christ. This period was designated as anno urbis condita, and by abbreviation, a. u. c., or simply u. c., and sometimes by a. alone, before the numerals.

Thus the birth of Virgil was a. u. c. 634. To reduce such dates to our reckoning, if the given number is less than 754, we subtract it from the latter number, and the difference is the required year before Christ. The birth of Virgil therefore is 754–684=70 before Christ.—But if the number of the Roman year exceeds 758, we deduct 758 from the given number, and the remainder is the year after Christ. For example, the emperor Augustus died a. u. c. 767, and the corresponding year of our era is 767–763=14.

### II. TABLES OF MONEY, WEIGHT, AND MEASURE.

#### OF THE As.

§ 327. The Romans used this word (As) to denote, I. The copper coin, whose value (in the time of Cicero) was about one cent and a half of our money. II. The unit of weight (libra), or of measure (jūgērum). III. Any unit or integer considered as divisible; as, of inheritances, interest, houses, etc.; whence ex asse heres, one who inherits the whole. The multiples of the As are, Dūpondius (duo pondo; for the As originally weighed a pound), i. e. 2 Asses; Sesterius (sesqui tertius), i. e. 2‡ Asses; Tressis, i. e. 3 Asses; Quatrussis, i. e. 4 Asses; and so on to Centussis, i. e. 100 Asses. The As, whatever unit it represented, was divided into twelve parts or uncia, and the different fractions received different names, as follows:

	Uncia.		ıcis
As	12	Quincunx	5
Deunx	11	Triens	4
Dextans	10	Quādrans, or Těruncius	3
Dodrans	9	Sextans	2
		Uncia	
Septunx	7		
Sēmis	6	Sescuncia	14

Later and the same

S Cts. M.

### The Uncia was divided in the following manner:-

1	Uncia	contained	2	Sēmunciæ.
	66	66	3	Duellæ.
	44	44	4	Sīcīlīci.
	44	44	6	Sextulæ.
	44	44	8	Drachmæ.
	4.	"	24	Scrūpŭla.

#### ROMAN COINS.

48 Obŏli.

These were the Téruncius, Sembella, and As or Libella, of copper; the Ses tertius, Quinārius (or Victòriātus), and Dēnārius, of silver; and the Aureus of gold.

					8	Cts.	M.
Τŀ	ie Těruncius.				0	0	3.9
2	Těruncii n			Sembella		0	7.8
2	Sembellæ	"	1	As or Libella	0	1	5.6
2	Asses*	"	1	Sestertius	0	3	9
2	Sestertii	"	1	Quinārius	0	7	8
2	Quinārii	"	1	Dēnārius	0	15	6
25	Danarii	66	1	Anrone	2	0.0	Δ

[.] Sometimes also (in copper) the triens, sextans, uncia, sextula, and dupondins.

#### ROMAN COMPUTATION OF MONEY.

### Sestertii Nummi.

Sestertius (or nummus) Dēcem sestertii Centum sestertii Mille sestertii (equal to a sestertium)	0	39 90	0	
Sestertia.	89	U	U	
Sestertium (equal to mille sestertii)	39 390	0	0	
Centum, centum sestertia, or centum millia sestertiûm Děcies sestertiûm, or děcies centēna millia nummûm	3900 39000	0	0	
Centies, or centies H. S. Millies H. S.		0	0	

N. B.—The marks denoting a Sestertius nummus are IIS., LLS., HS., which are properly abbreviations for 2 1-2 asses. Observe, also, that when a line is placed over the numbers, centen milkie a understood, as in the case of the numeral adverbs; thus, H. S. MC. is millies centies HS.; whereas HS. MC. is only 1100 Sestertii.

#### ROMAN CALCULATION OF INTEREST.

The Romans received interest on their loans monthly, their highest rate teng one per cent. (centesima), a month, i. e. 12 per cent a year. As this was the highest rate, it was reckoned as the as or unit in reference to the lower rates, which were denominated, according to the usual division of the as, semience, trientes, quadrantes, etc., i. e. the half, third, fourth, etc., of the as or of 12 per cent. according to the following table:—

#### ROMAN WEIGHTS.

					Oz.	Dwts	. Gr.
	Siliqua				0	0	8.036
3	Siliquæ n	nake	1	Obŏlus	0	0	9.107
2	Obŏli	44	1	Scrupulum	0	0	18.214
3	Scrūpula	44	1	Drachma	0	2	6.643
11	Drachma	66	1	Sextŭla	0	3	0.857
		66	1	Sīcilicus	0	4	13.286
1	Sīcilicus	"	1	Duella	0	6	1.714
	Duellæ	44	1	Uncia	0	18	5.143
12	Unciæ	44	1	Libra* (As)	10	18	13.714

^{*} The Libra was also divided, according to the fractions of the As, into Deunx, etc.

### ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS DRY.

### English Corn Measure.

			Peck.	Gal.	Pint.	Sol. in
	Ligŭla		0	0	0 1-48	0.01
4	Ligulæ make	1 Cyăthus	0	0	0 1-12	0.04
		1 Acētābŭlum	0	0	0 1-8	0.06
	Acētābŭla"	1 Hēmīna	0	0	0 1-2	0.24
2	Hēmīnæ "	1 Sextārius	0	0	1	0.48
16	Saxtārii "	1 Modius	1	ŏ	0	7.68

### ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS LIQUID.

4 11 2 2 2 2 6 4	Līgŭlæ m: Cyāthus Acētābŭla Quartārii Hēmīnæ Sextārii Congii	ake "	11111111	Cyāthus Acētābūlum. Quartārius Hēmina Sextārius* Congius Urna Amphora (or Quadrantal)	Galls. 0 0 0 0 0 0	Wine Pints. 0 1-48 0 1-12 0 1-8 0 1-4 0 1-2 1 7 4 1-2	Measure.  Sol. in. 0.117 0.469 0.704 1.409 2.876 5.636 4.942 5.33 10.66
2 20			1	Amphŏra (or Quadrantal). Cūleus	7	1 8	10.66 11.095

^{*}The Sexturius was also divided into twelve equal parts, called cyathi, and therefore the califies were denominated sextantes, quadrantes, trientes, according to the number of syathi which they contained.

N. B.—Cadus, congitrius, and dolium, are the names of certain vessels, not measures, of capacity.

### ROMAN MEASURES OF LENGTH.

				English paces.	Feet.	Inch. Dec
				0	0	0.725 1-4
11-€	Digitus	make	1 Uncia	0	0.	0.967
3	Unciæ	44	1 Palmus minor	0	0	2.901
4	Palmi minores	44	1 Pes	0	' 0	11.604
1 1-4	Pes	46	1 Palmipes	0	1	2.505
1 1-6	Palmipes	44	1 Cŭbĭtūs	0	1	5.406
1 2-3	Cubitus	66	1 Grădus	0	2	5.01
2	Grădus	66	1 Passus	0	4	10.02
125	Passus	66	1 Stădium	120	4	4.5
8	Stădia	46	1 Milliärium	967	0	0

### ROMAN SQUARE MEASURES.

	Roman	English		
	sq. feet.	rods.	Sq. pls.	Sq. feet.
Jūgěrum (As)	28,800	2	18	250.05
Deunx	26,400	2	10	183.85
Dextans	24,000	2	02	117.64
Dodrans	21,600	1	34	51.42
Bes	19,200	1	25	257.46
Septunx	16,800	1	17	191.25
Sēmis	14,400	1	09	125.03
Quincunx	12,000	1	01	58.82
Triens	9,600	0	32	264.85
Quādrans	7,200	0	24	198.64
Sextans	4,800	0	16	132.43
Uncia	2,400	0	08	66.21

REMARK 1. The Romans reckoned their copper money by asses, their silver money by sestertii, and their gold money by aurei and sometimes by Attic talents.

REM. 2. The as, as the unit of money, was originally a pound of copper, but its weight was gradually diminished, until, in the later days of the republic, it amounted to only 1-24th of a pound.

REM. 3. (a.) The denarius was a silver coin, originally equal in value to ten asses, whence its name; but, after the weight of the as was reduced, the denarius was equal to eighteen asses.

(b.) The sestertius, or sesterce, was one fourth of the denarius, or two asses and a half (semistertius). The sestertius was called emphatically numnus, as in it all large sums were reckoned after the coining of silver money.

REM. 4. In reckoning money, the Bomans called any sum under 2006 sesterces so many sestertii; as, decem sestertii, ten sesterces; centum sestertii, a hundred sesterces.

REM. 5. Sums from 2000 sesterces (inclusive) to 1,000,000, they denoted either by mille, millia, with sestertium (gen. plur.), or by the plural of the neuter noun sestertium, which itself signified a thousand sesterces. Thus they said quadraginta millia sestertium, or quadraginta sestertia, to denote 40,000 sesterces. With the genitive sestertium, millia was sometimes omitted; as sestertium centum, scil. millia, 100,000 sesterces.

REM. 6. To denote a million, or more, they used a combination; thus, decies centena millia sestertium, 1,000,000 sesterces. The words centena millia, however, were generally omitted; thus, decies sestertium, and sometimes merely decies See § 118, 5. So, centes, 10 millions; millies, 100 millions.

REM. '. Some suppose that sestertium, when thus joined with the numeral adverbs, is always the neuter norm in the nominative or accusative singular. The genitive and ab-lative of that noun are thus used; as, Decies sesterii dote, With a dowry of 1,000,000 sesterces. To. Quinquagies sesterito, 5,000,000 sesterces. Id. But this usage does not occur in Cicero.

### ABBREVIATIONS.

§ 328. The following are the most common abbreviations of Latin words :-

A., Aulus. C., Caius, or Gaius. Cn., Cnēns. D., Decimus. L., Lūcius. M., Marcus.

M. T. C., Marcus Tullius Cicero. M., Mānius. Mam., Māmercus. N., Numērius. P., Publius.

Q., or Qu., Quintus. Ser., Servius. S., or Sex., Sextus. Sp., Spărius. T., Titus. Ti., or Tib., Tiberius.

Pont. Max.,

maximus.

A. d., ante diem. A. U. C., anno urbis con-Cal., or Kal., Cilenda. Cos., Consul. Coss., Consules. D., Divus. D. D., dono dědit. D. D. D., dat, dicat, dedicat, or dono dicat, dedicat. Des., dēsignātus. D. M., diis mānībus.

Eq. Rom., eques Romanus.

F., Filius; as, M. F., Marci filius. Ictus, jūrisconsultus. Id., Idus. Imp., impěrātor. J. O. M., Jovi, optimo maximo. N., něpos. Non., Nonæ. P. C., patres conscripti. Pl., plēbis. Pop., populus. P. R., populus Romanus.

Pr., prætor. Proc., proconsul. Resp., respūblica. S., sālūtem, sacrum, or sėnātus. S. D. P., sălūtem dīcit plūrimam. S. P. Q. R., Senātus populusque Romānus. S. C., sěnātûs consultum. Tr., tribūnus.

pontifex

To these may be added terms of reference; as, c., caput, chapter; cf., confer, compare; l. c., loco citato; l. l., loco laudato, in the place quoted; v., versus, verse.

## DIFFFRENT AGES OF ROMAN LITERATURE.

1. Of the Roman literature for the first five centuries after the foundation of the city, but few vestiges remain. The writers of the succeed-ing centuries have been arranged in four ages, in reference to the purity of the language in the period in which they flourished. These are called the golden, silver, brazen, and iron ages.

2. The golden age is reckoned from the time of Livius Andronīcus, about A. U. C. 514, to the death of Augustus, A. U. C. 767, or A. D. 14, a period of a little more than 250 years. The writers of the early part of this age are valued rather on account of their autiquity, and in connection with the history of the language, than as models of style. It was not till the age of Cicero, that Roman literature reached its highest elevation. The era comprehending the generation immediately preceding, and that immediately succeeding, that of Cicero, as well as his own, is the period in which the most distinguished writers of Rome flourished; and their works are the standard of purity in the Latin language.

- 3. The silver age extended from the death of Augustus to the death of Trajan, A. D. 118, a period of 104 years. The writers of this age were inferior to those who had preceded them; yet several of them are worthy of coinmendation.
- 4. The brazen age con prised the interval from the death of Trajan to the time when Rome was taken by the Goths, A. D. 410. From the latter epoch commenced the iron age, during which the Latin language was much adulterated with foreign words, and its style and spirit essentially injured.
- 5. The body of Latin writings has been otherwise arranged by Dr. Freund, so as to be comprised in three main periods,—the Ante-classical, Classical, and Post-classical. The ante-classical extends from the oldest fragments of the language to Lucretius and Varro; the classical from Cicero and Cæsar to Tacitus, Suetonius, and the younger Pliny inclusive; the post-classical from that time to the fifth century of our era. The classical Latinity is subdivided into (a.) Ciceronian, (b.) Augustan, (c.) post-Augustan, and to the language of the fourth and fifth centuries he has given the title of late Latin.

### LATIS WRITERS IN THE DIFFERENT AGES

#### (From the Lexicon of Facciolatus.)

#### WRITERS OF THE GOLDEN AGE.

Livius Andronicus. Lævius. C. Nævius. Statius Cæcilius. Q. Ennius. M. Pacuvius.

L. Accius.C. Lucilius. Sex. Turpilius. L. Afranius.

L. Cornelius Sisenna.P. Nigidius Figulus.C. Decius Laberius. M. Verrius Flaccus. Varro Attacīnus. Titinius.

L. Pomponius. C. Sempronius Asellio. Cn. Matius.

Q. Novius. C. Q. Atta. L. Cassius Hemīna. Fenestella.

Q. Claud. Quadrigarius. Cœlius Antipăter. Fabius Pictor. Cn. Gellius.

L. Piso, and others.

Of the works of the preceding writers, only a few fragments remain.

M. Porcius Cato. M. Accius Plautus. M. Terentius Afer. T. Lucretius Carus.

C. Valerius Catullus. P. Syrus. C. Julius Cæsar C. Cornelius Nepos.

M. Tullius Cicero.

Sex. Aurelius Propertius. C. Sallustius Crispus. M. Terentius Varro.

Albius Tibullus. P. Virgilius Maro. T. Livius.

M. Manilius. M. Vitruvius. P. Ovidius Naso. Q. Horatius Flaccus.

C. Pedo Albinovānus. Gratius Faliscus. Phædrus.

C. Cornificius. A. Hurtius, or Oppius.

P. Cornelius Sevērus.

To these may be added the following names of lawyers, whose opinions are found in the digests:-

Q. Mutius Scævola. Alfenus Varus.

M. Antistius Labeo.

Masurius Sabīnus.

Of the writers of the golden age, the most distinguished are Terence, Catul-lus, Cæsar, Nepos, Ciovro, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, T. Livy, and Sallust.

### WRITERS OF THE SILVER AGE.

A. Cornelius Celsus.
P. Velleius Paterculus.
L. Junius Moderatus
Columella.

Columella.
Pomponius Mela.
A. Persius Flaccus.
Q. Asconius Pediānus.
M. Annæus Senēca.

M. Annæus Senēca. L. Annæus Senēca. M. Annæus Lucānus.
T. Petronius Arbīter.
C. Plinius Secundus.
C. Silius Italicus.

C. Valerius Flaccus.
C. Julius Solinus.
D. Junius Juvenālis.
P. Papinius Statius.
M. Valerius Martiālis.

M. Fabius Quintiliānus. Sex. Julius Frontīnus. C. Cornelius Tacītus. C. Plinius Cæcilius Se

cundus.
L. Annæus Florus.
C. Suetonius Tranquil

The age to which the following writers should be assigned is somewhat uncertain:—

Q. Curtius Rūfus. Valerius Prŏbus. Scribonius Largus. Sulpitia. L. Fenestella. Atteius Capito.

Of the writers of the silver age, the most distinguished are Celsus, Velleius, Columella, the Senecas, the Plinies, Juvenal, Quintilian, Tacitus, Suetonius, and Curtius.

### WRITERS OF THE BRAZEN AGE.

A. Gellius.L. Apuleius.

Q. Septimius Tertulliānus. Q. Serēnus Sammonī-

cus.
Censorīnus.
Thascius Cæcilius
Cypriānus.

T. Julius Calpurnius.
M. Anrelius Nemesiānus.
Elius Spartiānus.
Julius Capitolinus.
Elius Lampridius.

Vulcatius Gallicānus. Trebellius Pollio. Flavius Vopiscus. Cœlius Aureliānus Flavius Eutropius. Rhemnius Fannius. Arnobius Afer. L. Cœlius Lactantius.

Elius Donātus.
C. Vettus Juvencus.
Julius Firmīcus.
Fab. Marius Victorīnus.
Sex. Rūfus, or Rūfus
Festus.

Ammiānus Marcellīnus. Vegetius Renātus. Aurel. Theodōrus Macrobius.

Q. Aurelius Symmächus D. Magnus Ausonius. Paulinus Nolānus. Sex. Aurelius Victor. Aurel. Prudentius Clē-

mens.
Cl Claudiāuus.
Marcellus Empiricus
Falconia Proba.

### Of an Age not entirely certur.

Valerius Maximus. Justīnus. Terentiānus Maurus. Minutius Fēlix. Sosipăter Charisins. Flavius Avianus.

The opinions of the following lawyers are found in the digests:-

Licinius Procălus. Neratius Priscus. P. Juventius Celsus. Priscus Jabolēnus. Domitius Ulpiānus. Herennius Modestinus. Salvius Juliānus. Caius. Callistrătus. Æmilius Papiniānus. Julius Paulus.
Sex. Pomponius.
Venuleius Saturnius.
Ælius Marciānus.
Ælius Gallus, and others

Of the writers of the brazen age, Justin, Terentianus, Victor, Lactantius, and Claudian, are most distinguished.

The age to which the following writers belong is uncertain. The style of some of them would entitle them to be ranked with the writers of the preceding ages, while that of others would place them even below those of the iron age.

3 529. APPEND

Palladius Rutilius Taurus Æmiliānus. Æmilius Mācer. Messāla Corvīnus. Vibins Sequester. Julius Obsēquens. L. Ampelius. Apicius Cœitus.

Sex. Pompeius Festus. Probus (auctor Notarum.) Fulgentius Planciades.

Hyginus.
C. Cæsar Germanicus.
P. Victor.

P. Victor.

Auctores Priapeiorum. Catalecta Virgilii

Ovidii.
Auctor orationis Sallustii
in Cic. et Ciceronis in
Sall.; item illius Antequam îret in exsilium.
Auctor Epistolæ ad Oc-

tavium.
Auctor Panegyrici ad
Pisonem.

Pisonem.

Declamationes quæ tribuuntur Quintiliano,

Porcio Latroni, Calpurnio Flacco.

Interpres Darētis Phrygii, et Dictyos Cretensis.

tensis.
Scholiastæ Vetĕres.
Grammatĭci Antīqui.
Rhetŏres Antīqui.
Medĭci Antīqui.

Catalecta Petroniana.
Pervigilium Veneris.
Poematia et Epigrammăta vetera a Pithæo collecta.
Monumentum Ancyră

num. Fasti Consulāres. Inscriptiones Veteres.

### WRITERS OF THE IRON AGE.

Cl. Rutilius Numatiānus. Servins Honorātus, D. Hieronymus. D. Augustīnus. Sulpicius Sevērus. Paulus Orosius. Corlius Sedulius. Codex Theodosiānus. Martiānus Capella. Claudiānus Mamertus. Ridonius Apollināris.

Latinus Pacātus. Claudius Mamertinus, et aili, quorum sunt Panegyrici vetēres. Alcimus Avitus. Manl. Severinus Boēthius. Prisciānus. Nonius Marcellus. Justiniāni Institutiones et Codex.

Ruf. Festus Aviēnus.
Arātor.
M. Aurelius Cassidōrus.
Fl. Cresconius Corippus.
Venantius Fortunātus.
Isidōrus Hispalensis.
Anonymus Ravennas.
Aldhelmus or Althelmus.
Paulus Diacōnus.



# INDEX.

The figures in the following Index designate the Sections and their divisions: B. stands for remark, N for nots, R. for exception, w. for with, and pr. for grosody.

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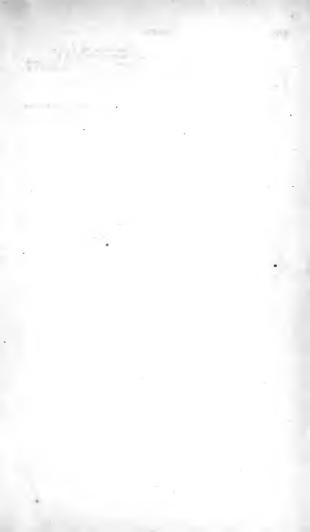
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